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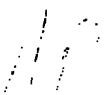

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Vol. III. OCTOBER 1, 1825. No. 1.

REVIEWS.

History of the Expedition to Russia, undertaken by the Emperor Napoleon, in the Year 1812. By General, Count Philip De Segur. With a Map. Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo. pp. 546.

This work gives a minute and exact account of the most remarkable military event of modern days. The author was with Napoleon, when he led forth the forces of his empire and its subjugated nations to make war upon that great rival, who was to be overthrown, before the natural growth of his vast power should enable him to overthrow. France had subdued nearly all of continental Europe; but the commerce of England gave her, in her wealth, a means of resistance, which, aided by her insular position, was too strong to be beaten down; and in the north and east, Alexander held in his hand the whole power of an empire, which had spread itself over the third part of the old world. Russia was a formidable obstacle to the career of Napoleon, not only from her own strength, but from the assistance which she could give to, and receive from England. Besides, Russia and France had become, in point of fact, near neighbours. The sway of each of these potentates had spread onward, until there was nothing between them; they touched, and the next step of either must have been resisted or yielded to by the other; the conflict could no longer be delayed. The work, now under our notice, gives additional proof, if any were wanting, that Napoleon considered his attack upon Russia as a part of his system, as a last effort, which would complete his achieve-

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ments, without which nothing that he had won was secure, and for which every thing that he had done was but a mighty preparation. The precautions which he took to ensure success, show, that it seemed to him most difficult and most important. He not only brought into the field all the best forces of his own empire, but banded with them the *élite* of all the nations which had yielded to his arms, or acknowledged his influence. He advanced into Russia with more than six hundred thousand men, and had almost exhausted his resources in accumulating abundant supplies for this enormous army. Surely, he had good reason to believe, that victory could not now, for the first time, fail to attend him; surely, no human wisdom would have been justified in believing that this countless host, strong in its discipline as in its numbers, commanded by the greatest general on earth, and by a multitude of men, whose military skill and virtues had made them marshals, and princes, and kings, was to be baffled and destroyed. The causes which led to this extraordinary result are now obvious; they were irresistible. Napoleon was conquered by the elements, and by the mode of warfare which the Russians adopted. Unquestionably the direst foe which he was called to encounter—that before which he fell prostrate—was the Russian winter. It may seem, that, on the one hand, this should have been foreseen by Napoleon, while, on the other, its horrors could not have been increased by any efforts of Alexander; and that, therefore, the defeat and destruction of the invading army, so far as it depended upon this circumstance, must be attributed to the improvidence of its commander, and to the good fortune of the Russian emperor. But it was the astonishing and unprecedented sacrifices of Alexander,—and they constituted almost the whole of his defence,—which armed the angry elements with resistless power. The winter came to the Russians as soon as to the French; the cold winds smote them as rudely, the snow was as deep beneath their feet, and the blinding, overwhelming tempests had no peculiar mercy for them; and though they were at home in these wastes, and their invaders had come up from their cultivated fields and accustomed habitations, to encounter, in a strange land, an enemy such as they had never before met, this was not the only nor the chief difference in their conditions. The French advanced almost without resistance, but they advanced only from one desolation to another. As the Russians retreated, they devastated the

country, and burnt down their cities, their villages, and cottages, with unsparing and unswerving resolution. The destruction of Moscow consummated the sacrifice. Napoleon took possession of the wealthy and populous capital of a vast empire, and encamped his troops among ruins, where none of the inhabitants of the great city remained to welcome or resist him, but a few wretched vagrants, to whom it was no change to be without a home. From a situation like this, retreat was unavoidable; and the Russians had taken care that the road his army must follow should be desolate as man and nature, working together, could make it. It was thus that this tremendous winter, which, in spite of all the precautions which experience and abundant resources could supply, thinned the Russian ranks and almost paralyzed their efforts, brought to their invaders utter ruin. The particulars of this march and retreat are given in the book now before us.

The first chapters describe the position of Napoleon with respect to the various powers of Europe, and disclose the different motives which, with more or less weight, induced him to take the great step of advancing with all his force upon Russia.

Perhaps the most interesting part of this work is that which discovers how necessary this despot thought it to persuade his principal officers into his own opinion, and shows by what arguments he endeavoured to effect this object.

To a minister of high rank under the ancient *régime*, whom the idea of shedding so much blood, to gratify ambition, filled with dismay he declared, "that it was a war of policy exclusively; that it was the English alone whom he meant to attack through Russia; that the campaign would be short; that afterwards France would be at rest; that it was the fifth act of the drama—the *dénouement*."

To others, he pleaded the ambition of Russia, and the force of circumstances, which dragged him into the war in spite of himself. With superficial and inexperienced individuals, to whom he neither wished to explain nor dissemble, he cut matters short by saying, "You understand nothing of all this; you are ignorant of its antecedents and its consequents."

But to the princes of his family he had long revealed the state of his thoughts; he complained that they did not sufficiently appreciate his position. "Can you not see," said he to them, "that, as I was not born upon the throne, I must support myself on it, as I ascended it, by my renown?—that it is necessary for it to go on increasing;—that a private individual, become a sovereign like myself, can no longer stop;—that he must be continually ascending, and that to be stationary is to be lost?"

His generals did not disobey him, but it would seem that, with almost no exception, they opposed this new project strenuously, and with the utmost openness. Many long conversations between the emperor and his officers are minutely related, and one can hardly fail to be surprised that they, who had won their greatness, and held it, by his favour, should dare to speak to him with such candour and boldness. Of this, the reply of one of them, in the following extract, is a fair specimen:

> It was prince Kourakin whom he addressed. That ambassador having just made protestations of the pacific intentions of his master, he interrupted him: "No," exclaimed he "your master desires war; I know, through my generals, that the Russian army is hurrying towards the Niemen! The emperor Alexander deludes, and gains all my envoys!" Then, perceiving Caulaincourt, he rapidly traversed the hall and violently appealing to him said: "Yes, and you too have become a Russian: you have been seduced by the emperor Alexander." The duke firmly replied, "Yes, sire; because I consider him to be in heart a Frenchman." Napoleon was silent; but from that moment, he treated that great dignitary coldly, without, however, absolutely dismissing him: several times he even essayed, by fresh arguments, intermixed with familiar caresses, to win him over to his opinion, but ineffectually; he always found him inflexible; ready to serve him, but without approving the nature of the service.

When Napoleon had advanced upon the confines of Russia, the dangers which surrounded him became more obvious and more pressing. The plans of the Russians were fully disclosed. They had met him upon the borders of their empire, but retreated before him with scarcely resistance enough to impede his progress. As they fell back, he advanced so rapidly as to leave his supplies far behind him, and involve his army in confusion,—but not so rapidly as to reach his flying foe. Often would they pause, and appear to offer him that battle, upon which all his hopes now rested; but before it could be gained, their march or flight was resumed, and the pursuit again urged. Before every capital city, Napoleon assured himself that a combat would be ventured, but one after another they were destroyed, and their ashes given up to him. At length, he arrived within sight of Smolensk, a city, which, from its size and its position, was considered the key of Old Russia. He found that Barclay and Bagration had hastened hither with all their forces to defend it, and he once more assured himself that the hour had come, which was to give him, with victory, success and safety. The enemy were before him, and every

disposition was made for battle; the ground was reconnoitred; its place allotted to each division; and Napoleon at length retired, with the expectation of beginning the decisive conflict with the earliest dawn; but the next morning found the Russians again in full retreat. It was now obvious, that they could not be induced to change their plan of operations, and Napoleon's generals saw, what he refused to see himself, that his progress would bring upon them almost inevitable ruin; and they seem to have expressed this opinion to him pretty unreservedly. One would think they were reasonably competent to judge upon this subject; and certainly the result justified the wisdom of their opinion by that kind of testimony, which to many minds is the strongest possible. This notion may have originated with these generals and become popular upon their authority; or the same reasons which made them adopt it, may have impressed it upon others. Be this as it may, it was a common remark at the time, and is now a prevalent if not an universal sentiment, that Napoleon jeopardized his high fortunes needlessly, by making war upon Russia, and ruined them utterly by pursuing this war with senseless obstinacy. It is impossible to deny that there is some ground for such an opinion; but we have never been thoroughly convinced of its correctness. We of course admit, that the Russian war was the immediate cause of Napoleon's overthrow. The question is, whether the chances of its ill success were duly weighed by him; and whether in the prosecution of the contest he was so entirely given over to that judicial madness, which the proverb tells us the gods send upon whom they would destroy,—as to rush headlong upon ruin, which he alone was so foolish as not to see. Now, we cannot but think that Napoleon had previously vindicated his claim to be considered a man of sagacity, as successfully as most persons. Born to no higher expectations than those which the millions who make up the European commonalty shared with him, he gradually approached and finally ascended the throne of a powerful kingdom. He went on his way, overpowering all opposition,—beating all enemies with their own weapons, whether these were the weapons of war or of peace, which the leagued world could bring against him. He formed all his plans with a sagacity that looked far and wide,—provided for them the most efficient means, and pursued them with resistless and untiring energy. And thus he went on for years extending his do-

minions from power to power until his imperial sceptre seemed but an instrument, by which he was to win an universal sovereignty. His genius overawed the world; he was the master spirit of his age; and surely it is neither wise nor fair to admit without cogent and accumulated proof, that an important step, upon which such a man determined after years of meditation, was utterly foolish. That it was possible for Alexander to repel him, and that this repulse might bring upon him ruin, the result has proved; but that it was exceedingly difficult for the Russians to resist his tremendous attack, and beat down the vast power he was bringing against them, is proved, we take it, by the unprecedented and desperate measures of defence, to which they were compelled to have recourse.

Perhaps Napoleon's situation justified his encountering this danger. France and England were engaged in a war, which was of necessity, *ad internecionem;* one of these two powers was to be totally subdued ere they could be at peace. Now Napoleon's only effective weapon in this war was his continental system, and such was the nature of the contest which he carried on, that he who was not for him, was thereby against him. Alexander had given in his adhesion at Tilsit, but of this he evidently repented and was rapidly approaching an union with England; he was obviously identifying his interests with those which were necessarily opposed to the power of Napoleon. It would seem then that the Emperor of the French had but to choose whether he would wait to receive the attack of Russia, gathering in her train the nations of Europe, whom Alexander would have easily brought to his standard by the promise of liberation, and if that were not enough, of spoil,—or assault that empire while these nations yet acknowledged his ascendency and lent him their arms, and so weaken it that it should be no longer a formidable enemy, or perhaps subdue it into cooperation with his plans. He chose the latter course,—was defeated and ruined. It is impossible to say what would have been the ultimate result, had he acted only on the defensive; but though he was unfortunate—perhaps imprudent—in advancing upon Russia, surely we are not authorized to say that his determination to do so was that of a madman. We think similar remarks may be made as to his conduct of this war. It seems that he was strongly urged to stop after he had entered Russia. But by marching on he had a fair prospect of conquering the

empire which he had invaded; he knew that he could reach Moscow, and from that capital he would have dictated to his humbled foe, peace upon his own terms, if the Russians had not determined upon a sacrifice, which no nation ever made before, and no other could or would endure now. On the other hand, had he stopped at Wilna, Vitepsk, or Smolensk, Alexander would have diligently improved the opportunities afforded him to strengthen and discipline his armies, and bring out his hordes *en masse*. In the spring the French must have retreated. How would it have affected Napoleon's reputation as a soldier, had he thus, after all his mighty preparations for a vigorous and overwhelming assault, stopped short in his career, while he was yet victorious, and lost by delay all chance of success. Count Segur seems perfectly assured that in all the controversies with his officers upon these points, Napoleon was in the wrong; but we can not help thinking that the Emperor had some reason for the insinuations he occasionally threw out. His generals had too much to lose in proportion to their possible gain; they were no longer soldiers of fortune, but princes with princely fortunes; they were at the top, and only desired to prevent the wheel from rolling. Their rank and wealth in some measure impaired the qualities which had won for them their high rewards.

But we must return to the doings of "the Grand Army." At length Napoleon's wishes were gratified. The Russians concentrated their forces at Moscow, and prepared to give him battle. Kutusoff, Barclay, and Bagration were there, and with them one hundred and twenty thousand men. Moscow was to be defended. The enemy had advanced almost to its walls, and the Russian generals, yielding, as is supposed, to the force of public sentiment, determined to make one effort before their capital was given up to their invaders. Napoleon learned that they were in battle array before him, with triumphant joy. "At length," said he, "we have them in our power. Let us march on and open the gates of Moscow." The battle was obstinately contested, but the Russians were at length entirely defeated. During this great day, Napoleon did not conduct himself in a manner at all agreeable to his generals, who found fault with him very freely. He refused their urgent and repeated requests, at different periods of the contest, for his guard and his reserve,—persisting in requiring them to win the battle without these troops. In reply to the

entreaty of one general, to send his guard into the battle, he said, "And if there be another battle tomorrow, what fresh troops shall I have for it?" And all within hearing were thunderstruck with the prodigy of Napoleon's beginning to think of the morrow!

As the French approached Moscow, Kutusoff continued to cheat its governor, Rostopschin, with assurances that he would defend the capital to the last extremity; at the last moment "he swore by his white hairs, that he would die with him before Moscow;" and immediately after decides upon his retreat. Rostopschin immediately announced his intention of burning the city, and completed his preparations.

The French army entered Moscow; Napoleon established himself in the Kremlin,—and his officers selected the most convenient houses and palaces, believing that they were now about to enjoy the repose they had so dearly purchased. They were soon undeceived. The wretches whom Rostopschin left behind him discharged their duties faithfully, and the city was soon wrapt in fire. The French laboured long to extinguish it, but at length the flames reached the Kremlin, and so effective were the preparations of Rostopschin, that Napoleon and his troops speedily ascertained the melancholy fact, that they could only hope to occupy the burning ruins of Moscow. The Emperor was compelled to leave the Kremlin, but he delayed his retreat, until it became dangerous. It is interesting to contrast his situation, his demeanour, and his language, as he entered Moscow, and as he left the city.

Napoleon did not enter Moscow till after dark. He stopped in one of the first houses of the Dorogomilow suburb. There he appointed Marshal Mortier governor of that capital. "Above all," said he to him, "no pillage! For this you shall be answerable to me with your life. Defend Moscow against all, whether friend or foe."

At the sight of this half Gothic and half modern palace of the Ruriks and Romanofs, of their throne still standing, of the cross of the great Ivan, and of the finest part of the city, which is overlooked by the Kremlin, and which the flames, as yet confined to the bazaar, seemed disposed to spare, his former hopes revived. His ambition was flattered by this conquest. "At length then," he exclaimed, "I am in Moscow, in the ancient palace of the Czars, in the Kremlin!" he examined every part of it with pride, curiosity, and gratification.

He required a statement of the resources afforded by the city; and in this brief moment given to hope, he sent proposals of peace to the Emperor Alexander. A superior officer of the enemy's had just been found in the great hospital; he was charged with the delivery of this letter. It was by the baleful light of the flames of the bazaar that

Napoleon finished it, and the Russian departed. He was to be the bearer of the news of this disaster to his sovereign, whose only answer was this conflagration.

Day-light favoured the efforts of the Duke of Treviso; he subdued the fire. The incendiaries kept themselves concealed. Doubts were entertained of their existence. At length, strict injunctions being issued, order restored, and alarm suspended, each took possession of a commodious house, or sumptuous palace, under the idea of there finding comforts that had been dearly purchased by long and excessive privations.

There was no time to be lost. The roaring of the flames around us became every moment more violent. A single narrow winding street, all on fire, appeared to be rather the entrance than the outlet to this hell. The Emperor rushed on foot and without hesitation into this narrow passage. He advanced amid the crackling of the flames, the crash of floors, and the fall of burning timbers, and of the red-hot iron roofs which tumbled around him. These ruins impeded his progress. The flames which, with impetuous roar, consumed the edifices between which we were proceeding, spreading beyond the walls, were blown about by the wind, and formed an arch over our heads. We walked on a ground of fire, beneath a fiery sky, and between two walls of fire. The intense heat burnt our eyes, which we were nevertheless obliged to keep open and fixed on the danger. A consuming atmosphere, glowing ashes, detached flames, parched our throats, and rendered our respiration short and dry; and we were already almost suffocated by the smoke. Our hands were burnt, either in endeavouring to protect our faces from the insupportable heat, or in brushing off the sparks which every moment covered and penetrated our garments.

In this inexpressible distress, and when a rapid advance seemed to be our only means of safety, our guide stopped in uncertainty and agitation. Here would probably have terminated our adventurous career, had not some pillagers of the first corps recognized the Emperor amidst the whirling flames: they ran up and guided him towards the smoking ruins of a quarter which had been reduced to ashes in the morning.

It was then that we met the Prince of Eckmuhl. This marshal, who had been wounded at the Moskwa, had desired to be carried back among the flames to rescue Napoleon, or to perish with him. He threw himself into his arms with transport; the Emperor received him kindly, but with that composure which in danger he never lost for a moment.

To escape from this vast region of calamities, it was further necessary to pass a long convoy of powder which was defiling amidst the fire. This was not the least of his dangers, but it was the last, and by nightfall he arrived at Petrowsky.

Next morning, the 17th of September, Napoleon cast his first looks at Moscow, hoping to see that the conflagration had subsided. He beheld it again raging with the utmost violence: the whole city appeared like a vast spout of fire rising in whirling eddies to the sky, which it deeply coloured. Absorbed by this melancholy contemplation, he observed a long and gloomy silence, which he broke only by the exclamation, "This forbodes great misfortunes to us!"

And Napoleon was right. The misfortunes, which he apprehended, fell upon him, but with a weight and intensity that he could not have foreseen. We have not left ourselves room to make many extracts from the narrative of this distressful retreat; and our readers may not be unwilling to be spared the recital of such painful circumstances. As the winter became more severe, the attacks of the enemy more frequent and violent, and the want of supplies more urgent, almost every species and degree of suffering was endured. Nothing relieves the gloom of these details, but those instances of peculiar energy, gallantry, or skill, which not unfrequently occurred, and displayed the characters of individuals in striking lights. Stories like the following alternate through the last half of the volume.

At the gates of the city an infamous action struck them with a degree of horror which was still undiminished. A mother had abandoned her little son, only five years old; in spite of his cries and tears, she had driven him away from her sledge which was too heavily laden. She herself cried out with a distracted air, "that *he* had never seen France! that *he* would not regret it! as for *her*, *she* knew France! *she* was resolved to see France once more!" Twice did Ney himself replace the unfortunate child in the arms of his mother, twice did she cast him off on the frozen snow.

This solitary crime amidst a thousand instances of the most devoted and sublime tenderness, they did not leave unpunished. The unnatural mother was herself abandoned to the same snow from which her infant was snatched, and entrusted to another mother; this little orphan was exhibited in their ranks; he was afterwards seen at the Berezina, then at Wilna, even at Kowno, and finally escaped from all the horrors of the retreat. * * * * * *

But amidst all these horrors, there were noble acts of devotion. Some there were, who abandoned every thing to save some unfortunate wounded, by carrying them on their shoulders; several others being unable to extricate their half-frozen comrades from this medley, lost their lives in defending them from the attacks of their countrymen, and the blows of their enemies.

On the most exposed part of the mountain, an officer of the Emperor, Colonel the Count de Turenne, repulsed the Cossacks, and in defiance of their cries of rage and their fire, he distributed before their eyes the private treasure of Napoleon to the guards whom he found within his reach. These brave men fighting with one hand, and collecting the spoils of their leader with the other, succeeded in saving them. Long afterwards, when they were out of all danger, each man faithfully restored the depot which had been entrusted to him. Not a single piece of money was lost.

Napoleon appears to have preserved, amidst all the horrors of his retreat, the affection and respect of his soldiers, as per-

fectly as when they followed him to uninterrupted victories. We cannot better illustrate the kind of power which he maintained over them and the reliance which they continued to place upon him, than by the following extract.

> It was now merely the shadow of an army, but it was the shadow of the grand army. It felt conscious that nature alone had vanquished it. The sight of its emperor revived it. It had been long accustomed not to look to him for its means of support, but solely to lead it to victory. This was its first unfortunate campaign, and it had had so many fortunate ones! it only required to be able to follow him. He alone, who had elevated his soldiers so high, and now sunk them so low, was yet able to save them. He was still, therefore, cherished in the heart of his army, like hope in the heart of man.
>
> Thus, amid so many beings who might have reproached him with their misfortunes, he marched on without the least fear, speaking to one and all without affectation, certain of being respected as long as glory could command our respect. Knowing perfectly that he belonged to us, as much as we to him, his renown being a species of national property, we should sooner have turned our arms against ourselves, (which was the case with many,) than against him, and it was a minor suicide.
>
> Some of them fell and died at his feet, and though in the most frightful delirium, their sufferings never gave its wanderings the turn of reproach, but of entreaty. And in fact did not he share the common danger? Which of them all risked so much as he? Who suffered the greatest loss in this disaster?
>
> If any imprecations were uttered, it was not in his presence; it seemed, that of all misfortunes, that of incurring his displeasure was still the greatest, so rooted were their confidence in, and submission to that man who had subjected the world to them; whose genius, hitherto uniformly victorious and infallible, had assumed the place of their free-will, and who having so long in his hands the book of pensions, of rank, and of history, found wherewithal to satisfy not only covetous spirits, but also every generous heart.

In concluding our review of this work, we would remark, that although it has entertained us exceedingly, we should not be altogether disposed to rely upon it as a work of unquestionable authority in doubtful matters. We do not mean to accuse the author of intentional misstatement, for there is nothing in his work which would justify a charge of that magnitude; but his partialities and prejudices are obviously very strong; he is too enthusiastic for an historian, and sometimes writes so loosely, one cannot help suspecting a little confusion in his thoughts; and he is quite too often elegant at the expense of exactness.

Reform of Harvard College.

(For the Titles, see No. 6, Vol. 2. of this Gazette.)

[CONTINUED.]

We come now to the consideration of the memorial of the resident Professors and Tutors, relative to the mode of constituting the Corporation of the University. This memorial was brought forward at an unseasonable moment. It found the friends of the College, particularly the two boards of the Corporation and the Overseers, engaged on the various subjects detailed in our preceeding articles. Considering the nature of the questions agitated in the memorial, it is also unfortunate that those who preferred it, did not have recourse to the professional assistance of legal counsel. It is not possible, in the present organization of our tribunals, public or private, that a question can be equally argued by lawyers on one side and laymen on the other. We think it would be highly inexpedient now, and particularly in this place, to revive this controversy;—we were about to say this *settled* controversy; settled however we do not regard it. The circumstance, which we have just mentioned, that it was not professionally argued on the side of the memorialists, and the caution of the overseers in the form of their decision, have left the question still open; and we regard nothing as more probable, if the doctrines of the memorial are not put in practice *sub silentio*, in future elections to the Corporation, than that they will be revived under auspices favourable to their thorough consideration; and in that case we are strongly inclined to think it will prevail.

The Corporation at present consists, and for about twenty years past has consisted, of the President of the College, residing at Cambridge, and six gentlemen, one of whom is *ex officio* the treasurer, the remaining five bearing the name of Fellows, but receiving no stipend from the College nor living in Cambridge. Of these five Fellows, two have usually, since 1806, been settled clergymen, of high standing in the profession, and three have as usually been lawyers or civil characters of eminence. The efficient government of the College, till the late changes, was exclusively in the hands of this Corporation, subject to the concurrence of the Overseers. No law or order not purely executive could be passed by the President, Professors, and Tutors; but every thing of great or small mo-

ment, the arrangement of studies, the selection of books, the assignment of degrees, the appointment to all offices, and in short the entire government of the institution, was in the hands of this board, acting in concurrence with the Overseers; but in some important articles claiming the exclusive right of originating measures. The objections to such an organization are numerous and evident. That of locality was obvious. States of college affairs have often existed and will often exist, when the Corporation needs to be in almost perpetual session; or at least in condition to be promptly convened. But residing in different towns, its meetings are necessarily by previous appointment and comparatively infrequent. Add to this, that a majority of its members have been men, who had other official duties, numerous and arduous, to perform. And the very best authority, that of more than one of these gentlemen candidly expressing themselves since the subject has been laid to sleep, might be quoted in proof of the proposition, that the duties of the Corporotion are of a nature not to be punctually and comfortably discharged by non-resident gentlemen in the busy and laborious professions. These were previous objections. Besides it could not but continually occur that the questions presented to the decision of the Corporation were such as that body was not competent to decide, composed as it necessarily was of men, who were not practically conversant with the government and instruction of literary institutions. This produced irresolution and delay in some cases, and when delay could not take place, it threw the sole decision of questions upon the President, as being the only member of the Corporation, who was intimately acquainted with the business of the College. There was further a manifest incongruity and want of fitness, in carrying the efficient government of an institution away from its walls or from immediate and convenient access to them. The true principle of organizing any government, partaking the nature of a trust, is to unite the greatest energy and responsibility, on the part of the active governors, with the most perfect accountableness to a suitable board of Overseers. The present constitution of the Corporation singularly defeats both ends, without substituting any thing valuable—no valuable substitute could be made—in their place. As the President, Professors, and Tutors have no final power, they have of course no responsibility for the wisdom of the college system. They are purely executive officers. On the other hand, the board of Overseers being a numerous

and to a considerable extent an *ex officio* board, and beholding between themselves and the College another non-resident body, viz. the Corporation, acting as a more direct check on the Immediate Government, felt a very relaxed zeal in the discharge of their office as visitors, and had become and in fact are still merely so in name. Thus of the three college boards, the Immediate Government wants power and responsibility, and the Overseers visitatorial interest; and both of these effects take place, because the Corporation have in some degree combined the functions of the two other academic bodies.

These were some of the objections alleged to exist against the present organization of the Corporation. We have not stated them in detail, nor illustrated them with facts and instances. Opinions will be divided as to the strength of these objections. What seems an evil to one will seem only a trifling inconvenience to another, and those who agree in the evil, will differ in the remedy. In our judgment the best remedy, though not at first view that proposed by the memorial, would eventually flow from putting the principles of the memorial in operation; viz. a complete division of the powers now exercised by the Corporation between the two other boards, the Immediate Government on the one hand, and the Overseers on the other. Strong objections have been made to giving the Immediate Government the choice of officers and the appointment of salaries. If this could not safely be committed to them, under the check of the concurrence of the Overseers, give these powers to the Overseers exclusively, or what would amount to the same thing, let the Overseers and Corporation according to the letter of the charter, and the original practice under it, meet in convention on all these subjects.

The evils which we have enumerated in the present constitution of the Corporation, whether real or imaginary, were likely to be felt or fancied, more directly and strongly by the Immediate Government, than by any body else. Of whatever kind the evil, whether the loss of power, of responsibility, of trust, of honour, of public confidence, they were the first and the greatest sufferers. If the college did not thrive, it was of no consequence to the Overseer, who as a senator or a counsellor would cease, perhaps, in a year to be connected with the institution; and it was of comparatively little consequence to the member of the Corporation, who, on the bench, at the bar, or in one of the most conspicuous parishes,

had other more important connexions with society. But on the prosperity and adversity of the college, the interests, honour, and happiness of the Immediate Government must almost always be exclusively dependant. Many of the objections above urged are, moreover, such as connect themselves with the daily administration of their duties.

In this state of feeling, it could not but occur to men anxious for the improvement of the system, to which their existence is so closely pledged, that this organization was comparatively a new thing. It was in the recollection of all of them, that it is only since 1806, that the Fellows (so called) have been exclusively non-resident, Dr Pearson having been the last Professor admitted to the Corporation. Those whose memories ran farther back, recollected when, besides the President, there were two of the Immediate Government in the board of Corporation. They remembered it as a sort of maxim, that one Professor, commonly the Professor of Divinity, and the oldest Tutor, at a time when the Tutorships were permanent, were members of the Corporation. Finally, those acquainted with the foundation and history of the college knew that the constitution of the Corporation had been a question of construction of the charter, keenly agitated, never decided, compromised between the parties, and still open to investigation.

Under these circumstances "the memorial" was drawn up, subscribed by a large majority of the Immediate Government, and presented to the Corporation. That body inofficially declined acting upon it, on the ground that it went to their own membership. It was then submitted by the memorialists to the Overseers, and, in consequence of the size of that body, in a printed form. It was presented to the Overseers at the close of a long and fatiguing day, spent in debating another subject, and, without being read, was committed to the same committee, which had been raised to take into consideration the report of Mr Justice Story, upon which we have made some remarks in the former numbers of this articles. The chairman of that committee was John Lowell Esq., a gentleman deeply versed in college affairs; but who in the sequel declined acting as chairman of the committee on the subject of the memorial, in consequence of having already formed and expressed opinions on the subject, unfavourable to the memorial. Considering the amount of duty already in the hands of the committee connected with Mr Justice Story's report, it is to be

regretted that the memorial had not been referred to a separate and special committee. In the month of August a pamphlet was published against the memorial, being No. 6, of our list in Vol. ii. No 6, of this Gazette. This pamphlet was anonymous, but being distributed by Mr Lowell, was understood to have proceeded from his pen, and has not been disavowed. Shortly after its appearance, a reply was published by Mr Everett, with the title of "A Letter to John Lowell Esq." To this a short anonymous rejoinder was published by Mr Lowell, with which the controversy, in the pamphlet form, closed.

At the last January session of the General Court, the overseers had their semi-annual meeting; when the committee above mentioned made their reports, one a very voluminous one growing out of the subject of Mr Justice Story's report, the other, on the subject of the memorial, and decidedly hostile to its claims. The former of these reports was briefly supported by Mr F. C. Gray, a member of the senate, and of the committee who drafted the report, and understood to be the gentleman by whom it was drawn up. At an adjourned meeting of the Overseers a very masterly, elaborate, and eloquent speech was made by Mr Justice Story against the doctrine of the memorial, considered as a legal claim.

In this powerful speech, Judge Story confined himself chiefly to the first branch of the argument, which will hereafter be specified; it being understood, however, that he was equally prepared to go through with the other topics, and was only prevented by want of time. In the afternoon of the same day, some remarks were made by Mr Richardson, of the senate, in favour of the memorial, closing with a motion, that an opportunity should be offered to the memorialists of being heard in its support. This was opposed by some members of the board, on the ground that the memorialists had been offered, and had declined a hearing, before the committee. The hearing, however, was finally granted, rather as an indulgence than a right; and, on motion of Mr Lowell, was assigned for the then next semi-annual meeting of the overseers, in the month of June. At a meeting of the overseers the next week, a motion was made by Mr Lowell, to reconsider this vote assigning the month of June for the hearing; and proposing to fix it at a period of two or three weeks. In the debate on this motion, the memorialists were handled very severely, for asking a hearing before the board in that state of the pro-

ceedings, after having declined it before the committee. The motion for reconsideration, finally prevailed, and the third of February was fixed for the hearing. The Overseers assembled that day, in the Senate Chamber, their former meetings having been in the much larger hall of the House of Representatives. They were addressed in the forenoon by Mr Everett, and in the afternoon by Mr Norton in defence of the memorial. The former confined himself, principally, to the question of history and fact. In an introductory attempt to explain the alleged inconsistency on the part of the memoralists, in having sought a hearing of the Overseers, after having declined it before the committee, and generally to justify the manner in which the memorial had been brought forward, he was called to order, and desisted from that part of the defence. The argument of Mr Norton was principally on the subject of the *expediency* of adopting the principles of the memorial. His very able speech, marked No. 10 in our list of titles at the head of this article, has since been published; and it will therefore be in our power to lay an analysis of it before our readers.

At the opening of the meeting of the Overseers, at which that body was addressed on the subject of the memorial, by Mr Justice Story, Mr Lowell had moved three resolutions, as a conclusion to the Report; setting forth,—1st, that the resident instructers had not an exclusive right to be elected members of the Corporation;—2dly, that there is nothing in the charter nor in the usage of the College, requiring the members of the Corporation to reside; and—3dly, that it would be unwise and indelicate in the Overseers, to express any opinion on the subject.

These resolutions, for what reasons we do not know, were withdrawn, and on the opening of the meeting of the Overseers, the day after the defence by Messrs Everett and Norton, the following were substituted in their stead.

"Resolved: That it does not appear to this Board, that the resident instructers at Harvard University have any exclusive right to be elected members of the Corporation.

"Resolved: That it does not appear to this Board, that the members of the Corporation forfeit their offices by not residing at the College.

"Resolved: That in the opinion of this Board, it is not expedient to express any opinion on the subject of future elections."

Mr Gray then followed in support of these resolutions, in a speech of considerable length; and at an adjourned meeting in the afternoon, Chief Justice Parker and Mr [late] Justice Jackson spoke on the same side of the question. The vote was at length taken unanimously in favour of the resolutions.

At a meeting of the Overseers held shortly after, Judge Jackson was presented for confirmation, as a member of the Corporation, and was rejected by a vote of 18 to 20. This rejection was pretty generally ascribed to the fact, that though the Overseers opposed the claim of the memorial, as a matter of right, they favoured the introduction of resident instructers as a matter of expediency. The next week, however, Judge Jackson was again nominated, as a member of the Corporation, and chosen by a vote of 30 to 21. It was denied by those opposed to the memorial, that the Overseers divided, either on the ground of right or expediency, in reference to the claim of the memorial, in the question of concurrence in the selection of Judge Jackson; and it was hinted that the dividing line was *political.* This intimation, however, we regard neither as very likely to be true, nor very highly complimentary to the Overseers. Since this time, Mr Justice Story of Salem has also been elected a member of the Corporation, in the place of the Hon. Harrison Gray Otis resigned.

It would be manifestly impossible, as we have already observed, to go over the whole ground of this controversy, but we shall endeavour to give a sketch of its leading points.

[*To be continued.*]

Essays on some of the First Principles of Metaphysics, Ethics, and Theology. By Asa Burton, D. D. Pastor of the Church of Christ in Thetford, Vermont. Portland. 1824. 8vo. pp. 414.

There is a most interesting promise made to the reader in the Introduction to this volume.

The author of the following Essays, when he first entered on the study of theology, felt the importance of forming a just and true theory of the human mind. This feeling prompted him to read with atten-

tion all the most noted and distinguished authors, he could find, on the subject of pneumatology.—He expected, by studying them, to digest a true system. This course he pursued for several years. When he had carefully attended to English, Scotch, French, and German authors, instead of finding increased light, his mind was more darkened and perplexed with respect to several parts of this very important subject. Failing of success in this way, he determined to lay aside reading authors, except occasionally, and make an attempt by an exertion of his own powers, to arrange his thoughts systematically on the principles and operations of the human mind. In this way, he has succeeded, in some good measure, to his own satisfaction.

We do not know when we have had our hopes raised higher than by these remarks. The author seemed to us to view his subject with the eye of a philosopher, and to be resolved on taking the only true route to a perfect mastery of it. It is not a science to be built upon reading. The facts, the materials to be analysed, the instruments of observation and inquiry, every thing in a word that the student wants, lies within himself. This makes out the vast superiority of the science of mind. It is true, previously written treatises on the subject are to be consulted,—but it should be, as the enterprising and inquisitive traveller goes to his geography or his map, to compare them with the country through which he journeys and the scenes around him, and to mark how true or how false they are to their original.

We are sorry now to say that we have already given Mr Burton all the praise we can afford him. He has performed little of the promise which he made us so generously in the beginning. His work is indeed a failure,—a total failure, we think. The style, which our brothers of the North American, if we understand them, call extremely uninteresting and bad, seems to us incomparably the best part of it. For it contains a great many crudities, a great many truisms, a great many things which are not true, a great many things we have repeatedly seen better stated before, without any new valuable matter that we have as yet been able to discover. A sad falling off this from our high expectations!—We feel like disappointed adventurers, who go to a land where hidden gold is promised, and return pennyless.

We will take a little out of the volume now in support of our remarks. In the first place Mr Burton tries to prove that the human mind has faculties. And a faculty he defines to be "a preparedness, a fitness, a capacity, or an adaptedness for those various operations of which we are daily conscious." Reflect for a moment, reader. There is an attempt here to

show that the mind is previously fitted and adapted to do what it does continually,—to think, to understand, to will, for example. Mr Burton may state the proposition for himself. "And now the inquiry is whether there is in the mind a faculty or preparedness for thinking, a preparedness for feeling, a preparedness for willing; or whether there is not." An adventurous spirit he, who should take up the affirmative here incautiously. Our author musters almost half a dozen passages of metaphysics in support of it. But this is not near all. Not content with throwing the feeble light of reason on the dark question, he calls in likewise the aid of Revelation. Indeed it rests mainly with him upon Scripture proofs.

God is the author of our being. He is perfectly acquainted with the nature and properties of our minds. He can give us a just description of men. According to his word, men possess three distinct properties or faculties. An understanding, which is the seat of knowledge; the heart, which is the fountain of depravity; and the will, as the cause of all the visible effects wrought by us.

The last time Christ appeared to his disciples after the resurrection, it is said, "then opened he their *understanding*, that they might understand the scriptures." Here the understanding is that faculty, by which his disciples were to obtain a knowledge of the great doctrines of the gospel. By this they would perceive the truth; and become acquainted with the gospel scheme of salvation, and be able to teach it to others. Also Eph. i. 18. "The eyes of your *understanding* being enlightened, that ye may *know* what is the hope of his calling, and what the riches of the glory of his inheritance in the saints." The *eyes* of the understanding were *enlightened*, for this purpose, that saints might *know*, or clearly and distinctly *perceive* the objects of their hope and desire.

And so on through. We will not contest the point with our author about the existence of the mental faculties; but as a theologian he ought to know that the sacred volume was not given us to explain metaphysics by. The moral reformation of man was its single purpose, and the most familiar language was made use of, because this is the most easy and intelligible, though it may not square exactly with the refined researches of philosophy.

Having thus settled the obscure question, whether the human mind is fitted, or has a capacity, for thinking, understanding, willing, &c.; that is, whether it possesses faculties or not, Mr Burton next proceeds to inquire what these faculties are. And he insists upon it that the understanding, the will, and the *heart* have this character. The heart is a faculty of the mind!! Memory however he thinks does not

deserve so high a character. He comes to the same conclusion too about conscience.

Now we see, that conscience does *perceive; it therefore does not feel.* As it perceives, if we call it a *faculty*, it is the same with the understanding. But of what use is it to have two perceiving faculties? So if we say, it is the nature of conscience to *feel*, to love and hate; then it cannot perceive. And if its nature is to *feel*, it is, if a *faculty*, the same with the heart or taste. And of what use is it to attribute to the mind two *feeling* faculties?

Here are our author's leading principles on Taste:—"1st. Taste, like the understanding, is undefinable, being a simple property." "2d. The taste, OR THE HEART, is a feeling faculty." "3d. Taste is the *spring of action* in all moral agents." "4th. Taste is a *moral* faculty. *Here is the fountain of all virtue and vice.*"

But we are tired of this business. We were going to say something of the new meanings which our author gives to the most familiar language, because we think this has been a great source of error and confusion to him throughout his book. An example of it occurs in the quotations we have just now made in the use of the word Taste. The Scriptures, we are told, "call this faculty the heart." The heart is not only a faculty of the mind, but this faculty is the same with the taste!! And Mr Burton seriously professes to use the terms in this sense as often as they may occur in his book. "*Whenever I may use the word heart to signify a faculty of the mind, I mean the same thing by it* [as] *I do by the word taste.*"

It is high time for us to stop. We owe it in justice to our author, and certainly to ourselves, to say that we have not had the patience to read this volume through. When we saw in prospect before us the deep questions of moral agency, of liberty and necessity, of the nature of good and evil, of God's foreknowledge and decrees, &c. &c. &c. and observed cursorily how they were handled, sometimes, as it seemed to us, without being understood even in the terms of them by the author himself, our courage gave out and we lay down the book in despair,—perhaps it may contain mines which we have not had the talent to touch.

MISCELLANY.

THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY

CONSIDERED MORE PARTICULARLY IN THEIR APPLICATION TO THE INDUSTRY AND GENERAL INTERESTS OF THE UNITED STATES.*

I. WEALTH.

As human wants increase, in the progress of man from his primitive state towards that of civilization, so must his labour for their supply increase with them.

With the increase of his labour, habits of industry are formed, the land is improved, the arts arise and are advanced, production is increased wealth is accumulated, and each successive generation is thus supplied with additional means of accelerating production and increasing wealth.

Individual wealth is that, whatever it may consist in, which gives the possessor of it, in all places within the sphere of civilization, and at all times, in sickness as well as in health, a command over all objects, whether of necessity or desire, which are of an exchangeable nature.

National wealth is not the aggregate of individual wealth, inasmuch as this in part consists in public and private debt.

But national wealth consists of the aggregate of public, private, and corporate property, so far as this is composed of material things having a real and inherent value, and of property in debts due from abroad: deduct, from the sum total of this aggregate property, the amount of public, corporate, and private debt,

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* The following extracts from a letter of our correspondent, accompanying these pieces, will serve to explain the views of their author. "The sheets, which I place in your hands, are designed to supply a deficiency in the books, the continuance of which I have heard many persons lament. What is wanted is a compendious and practical view of the great maxims of political economy, and a view of them suited to the interests of Americans. How far these papers go towards attaining their object, I will not undertake to say; but of this I am sure, that they contain truths, and truths of weighty moment, which are not so universally recognised amongst us as the welfare of the country demands they should be, and which it is here attempted to place in a new light

"I say, *in a new light*, and for the following reasons. Whenever these topics have been discussed in European books, it has always been done under the influence of some darling theory, which it was the writer's aim to support, and which coloured all his opinions and reasonings. This theory, also, has usually been deduced from some peculiarity in the writer's situation, or in the condition of his country, leading to conclusions, which might be favourable to his own interest or to his country's interest, but which are not so to *ours* or to that of *our* country. It is our misfortune that we are, in America, more than duly prone to regard the writings of certain English politicians and economists as little short of oracular.

"Prevalent as this disposition is, it would be equally just for us to put faith in the flattering picture which Blackstone and other English lawyers draw of the supreme

which the nation owes abroad, and the balance is the amount of national wealth.

Although a portion of individual wealth enters to make up the aggregate of national wealth, namely, that portion which consists in material objects of intrinsic value and of debts due from abroad; yet it does not follow that every accession to individual wealth is an augmentation of national wealth, or that what promotes the interest of an individual must necessarily promote that of the public.

Individual fortune may arise from speculation, or transactions which produce a gain to one from the loss of another, but by which the nation is none the richer.

As the productive industry of the nation is the source of its wealth, transactions and operations which discourage it, however individually profitable, are prejudicial to the public interests; whereas those pursuits, transactions, and operations which encourage and promote industry, are those which are most conducive to the public prosperity and wealth.

II. CAPITAL.

Capital is either fixed or circulating, and is that portion of wealth which is employed by the productive classes in the community, for purposes of income and profit.

The means employed by productive industry in production, consist in land, live stock, rude materials, the powers of nature, and products; and so far as these means are individually appropriated they are collectively called capital.

Property in any of these objects, if unemployed, or only employed for pleasure, is not called capital. It is then, if spoken of in the abstract, called wealth; or if spoken of in respect to its ownership, it is called property simply.

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excellence of monarchical institutions; or to think of adopting the counsel, which a late Quarterly Review very soberly gives us, to *amend* our constitutions by engrafting upon them a king, an order of nobles, and an established religion.

"The object of the pieces before you, then, is to give a plain exposition of economical principles adapted to our interest, not the interest of France, or of Britain, or of the British country gentlemen, or of British stockholders. Suffice it for us to be cautioned from error by European example, and to learn by their fruitful experience, without wishing to acquire wisdom by hazarding our own national welfare. Let their political theories serve as beacon lights, which may guide us into the haven of security, by warning us from, instead of leading us to, the rocks on which they stand.

"When, furthermore, the principles of political economy have been debated amongst us, it has generally been with reference to some question of public policy then pending, and the disputants have either looked upon it through the medium of their own personal or sectional interest, or they have been affected by theories not adapted to the particular interests or position of our country. But in these papers, endeavour is made, not to draw individual inferences from preconceived general theories, but to deduce principles from the actual observation of facts:—with what success you will judge."

Capital conduces greatly to increase the power of productive industry; and the different branches of it are more or less productive, in proportion as capital is made to perform more or less of the work in the process of production.

In agriculture, the fertility of the soil and the implements of husbandry;—in the fisheries, the vessels, boats, and fishing-tackle;—in manufactures, the machinery and the powers of nature, by which it is made to work;—in the mechanic arts, the tools of the workmen;—and in commerce, the money which takes off the surplus products of the preceding branches, and replaces to them the cost of production with a profit, together with the shipping employed in the transport and distribution of these products:—all afford exemplifications of the manner in which capital operates to facilitate and accelerate production.

With the increase of production, circulating capital is first increased; and as this increases, so does the income, and with that the value of fixed capital increases.

These two kinds of capital are not convertible into each other by the simple exchange of one for the other. When a merchant quits trade and enters into manufacture, he does not thereby convert his circulating capital into fixed; his circulating capital goes into other hands, and he gets a fixed capital in manufacture in exchange for it. So when a farmer enters into trade, or a trader into agriculture, they do not transfer their capitals from one employment to the other; but their capitals acquire other owners, and remain as before, while they acquire other capitals in exchange.

It is not by exchanging capital in one employment for capital in another that the profits of capital in different employments are equalized; but it is through the employment of labour, by which the relative quantities of the different capitals are changed, that the profits on the different employments of them find their level.

When capital in manufacture yields more income than capital in commerce, the commercial capital is employed through the means of labour to increase the manufacturing capital, until the incomes from both become equal. But though the manufacturing capital is augmented by these means, the general circulating capital is not thereby diminished. The money paid for labour is not consumed; and the necessary consumption of the labourer is the same as though he were not thus employed.

The income from fixed capital is increased by the increase in quantity of all those commodities of which the circulating capital is composed, and it is reduced by the reduction of these commodities.

The value of fixed capital, or its nominal amount, rises and falls with the rise and fall of its income.

It therefore follows that every person, whose capital is in real estate, or fixed property, is interested in encouraging the production of exchangeable commodities in all branches of industry, as *the only means* by which the incomes of their estates can be increased, and, with the increase of the incomes, the value of the estates enhanced.

And the most effectual means of encouraging to increased production in existing branches, are by promoting the establishment of new ones, which will excite to greater activity in all.

H. C.

(*To be continued.*)

THE LAY MONASTERY.

Valentine Writing.

Many precious rites
And customs of our rural ancestry
Are gone, or stealing from us; this I hope
Will last forever. WORDSWORTH.

I HAVE always been a curious inquirer into the origin of the pleasantries and quaint customs of ancient holydays. As often as the merry festival of Christmas comes round, and "in the hinder end of harvest" the cheerful joys of All-Hallowmas Eve, I love to sit down and think whence sprung the superstitions connected with these festive times, of which so little is known in our country. My childish fancy was long ago awakened by reading of the funeral procession of St Mark's Eve, when the forms of those, who are to die within the year walk at midnight through the church-yard and disappear one by one in the chancel. The strange little ballads, too, and old tales of Robin Goodfellow, and fairies, and hobgoblins have been familiar to me from my schoolboy days. I believed in their moonlight revels and in the faint circle left upon the green grass under the copse, where their feet had trodden;—and I gave my solemn faith to the opinion, that the only way to sleep secure from them was to lie cross-legged, like the effigies of Knights Templars and Crusaders. This was a childish credulity, and has passed away from me; but the spirit of curiosity, which then led me to peep into those mysterious things, has not passed away with it. I still love to indulge in conjectures upon the superstitious beliefs and observances of mankind,—not only because it carries me back again to the fulness and freshness of youthful feelings, but because those feelings are not so effaced within me, as to retain no longing and sighing after their first love. Having thus been from my youth up a kind of arrant poacher in the rich fields of legend and romance,

it is not strange that I should find it a pleasure even now,—when riper years have made me sceptical upon many points of my former belief,—to look into those ancient things, which I should be looking and searching into, were I young again.

There is something about St Valentine's day which always pleased me. The Old Winter festival comes round to us in a comfortless season,—warming our hearts with kindly feelings and generous love. There is something so pleasant, too, in its simple ceremonies—so full of sweet pastime as they are—keeping our feelings in cheerful play, and uniting in themselves the romance of poetry with the true love of real life. Poetry, like love, is a passion in young hearts. It is the first bursting forth of holy and happy feelings,—the first language of that affectionate enthusiasm which has sprung up within them. It may be that a familiarity with the beautiful semblances of poetry can lead the hearts of the young to love what is nearest allied to these forms on earth. It is no marvel then, that the lineaments of female beauty, and the changing shades of meaning which pass over the human countenance, should have drawn forth the sweet music of poetry from those who were happy enough to find within themselves deep springs of feeling and of language. Nor is it strange that such a rich-toned instrument should have won the ear of beauty. But the world has said of poets,—

> "The silent heavens have goings-on;
> The stars have tasks,—but these have none!"

It may be so at times; but it is not so on Valentine's day. The pleasant ceremonies of that season are well described by Hurdis, as follows:—

> The day Saint Valentine,
> When maids are brisk, and at the break of day
> Start up and turn their pillows, curious all
> To know what happy swain the fates provide,
> A mate for life. Then follows thick discharge
> Of true-love knots and sonnets nicely penned,
> But to the learned critic's eye no verse,
> But prose distracted.

In respect to the origin of these observances, little can be said that is worth saying. Valentine was an ancient Presbyter of the Christian Church, and suffered martyrdom at Rome, under Claudius II. in the third century, being beaten with clubs, and afterwards beheaded. Some persons, who probably think with Lord Shaftesbury that "we can admire nothing profoundly without a kind of religious veneration"—have associated the holy devotion of the day with the feelings and expressions of an earthly love, and trace back its yearly commemoration to the times of the martyr's death;—as if the songs of our modern Troubadours

had any thing to do with martyrdom. Poor Pegasus is indeed most sadly beaten on Parnassus, and many a muse beheaded in the immolating spirit of that day !—This is the martyrdom of modern times.

Speaking of the custom of writing billets-doux on this day, Mr Hutchinson says, "The first inventor of this custom must have been some benevolent female, who studied to encourage the intercourse of the sexes; for by such means intimacies might arise productive of love and marriage engagements." This explanation of the origin of the ceremonies attending Valentine's day is neither full nor satisfactory; but as I have not room to pursue these speculations farther in this paper, I shall close with a specimen or two of these "sonnets nicely penned," which were given me by the ladies to whom they were addressed. The first is from a slighted wooer, who evidently had a dash of enthusiasm in his composition. The lady from whom I received it, assured me that it was a very melancholy and dolorous little ditty, and an old friend of mine—a bachelor—thought it quite too solemn for so joyful an occasion, as that of a man's getting well out of one of love's by-paths.

Lady! if a poor child of song
May ask awhile thy serious ear,
And he that wooed thy love so long,
Can find a willing listener here,—
I have a tale to tell thee now
Of blighted heart and broken vow.

Aye, of a heart in bright hours cleft,
As cities sacked by day are left;—
A life, that wearing to a close
Low in its socket starts and glows :—
Of one whose love should merit thine,
Dying, a slighted Valentine.

Lady!—tomorrow's sun will see
Life's cheerful banquet closed for me;
But changing sun and shower shall long
Pass o'er the voiceless child of song,
Ere carved stone where he sleeps secure
Shall say "Here rests a Troubadour."

The grave!—the grave!—'t is the last altar
To which our weary feet can falter!
Its fire gone out—its censer cold—
Its ashes mingling with earth's mould!
Farewell!—for me 't is sweet to die,
When thine own life is blessed thereby.

To me there seems to be more jingle than common-sense in these things;—I shall therefore add but one more piece from the collection before me. The following would not, in the orthodoxy of poetical gallants, be considered a Valentine; and I do not

transcribe it as a specimen of this kind of writing; but rather because I can trace in it a greater beauty and delicacy of sentiment than is generally wrought into the texture of modern love-songs.

ON A LOCK OF HAIR.

As from his shrine the pilgrim brings
Some relic of its holy things,
That it may keep on memory's page
The record of his pilgrimage,—
So he who holier days remembers,—
Till life is quenched in its own embers
Will cherish, with religious zeal,
The gift, where love has set his zeal.

The purple robe,—the bright rich gem,—
The sceptre—throne—and diadem,—
Yes—all life's pomp and pageantry
Are but poor things for one like me:—
But this sweet gift,—this little token
Of love that never will be broken,
This frail memorial of bright days
I'll keep till life itself decays!

It is time to close these desultory speculations; and I do it with a hope, that when Valentine's day comes round again, its bards will celebrate it with more of the true feeling of love, and less of an affected devotion. THE LAY MONK.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

INSCRIPTION.

Stranger, if thou hast ever blessed the shade,
That lent thee shelter from the sun or rain,
Thou wilt not rest thee underneath this elm
Without a sense of gratitude. The boughs,
That overshadow thee, have borne the brunt
Of centuries, and have records of the past
In all their whispering leaves. We cannot hear them
Telling their tales, through the long summer day,
To the cool west-wind, and have other thoughts,
Than of the generations, who have sat,
In long succession, on the mossy turf
That beds these twisted roots. Sunshine and calm,
Darkness and storm, have been around these boughs,
And they have smiled to the unclouded sky,
And rocked in the rude tempest, but have stood
Unbroken, while the stream of human life
Has ebbed and flowed like the perpetual tide,
And hardly left a trace upon its shores,

To tell us where it came. Then rest thee, stranger,
And think thou hearest in the ancient wood
A monitor, that warns thee of thy end
With a low earnest voice, a voice of kindness,
That, like a silent fountain running over,
Refreshes where it flows, and, like its waters,
Gives life to the sere heart it passes by.

P.

AUTUMN.

With what a glory comes and goes the year!—
The buds of spring,—those beautiful harbingers
Of sunny skies and cloudless times,—enjoy
Life's newness, and earth's garniture spread out;
And when the silver habit of the clouds
Comes down upon the autumn sun, and with
A sober gladness the old year takes up
His bright inheritance of golden fruits,
A pomp and pageant fill the splendid scene.

There is a beautiful spirit breathing now
Its mellow richness on the clustered trees,
And from a beaker full of richest dyes
Pouring new glory on the autumn woods,
And dipping in warm light the pillared clouds.
Morn on the mountain, like a summer bird,
Lifts up her purple wing, and in the vales
The gentle wind, a sweet and passionate wooer,
Kisses the blushing leaf, and stirs up life
Within the solemn woods of ash deep-crimsoned,
And silver beach, and maple yellow-leafed,—
Where autumn, like a faint old man, sits down
By the way-side a-weary. Through the trees
The golden robin moves; the purple finch,
That on wild cherry and red cedar feeds,—
A winter bird,—comes with its plaintive whistle,
And pecks by the witch-hazel, whilst aloud
From cottage roofs the warbling blue-bird sings;
And merrily with oft-repeated stroke
Sounds from the threshing-floor the busy flail.

O what a glory doth this world put on
For him that with a fervent heart goes forth
Under the bright and glorious sky, and looks
On duties well performed, and days well spent!
For him the wind, aye, and the yellow leaves
Shall have a voice, and give him eloquent teachings.
He shall so hear the solemn hymn, that Death
Has lifted up for all, that he shall go
To his long resting-place without a tear.

H. W. L.

THE SAILING OF THE BRANDYWINE

He has gone to the land of his fathers again,
The Lord of the Free, to the hills of his home,
Behind him the summits of Liberty wane,
Before him the billows are bursting in foam.
Oh! well on that wild uncontrollable sea
May a spirit like his look thrillingly down,
Whose waves rise around him like arms of the Free
To bear him in triumph their loud ranks along.

Like a vision he past—like a new orb of day!
Which flung o'er a people the light of its smile;
And the tears of full hearts fell bright round his way,
Which the rainbow of gratitude spanned all the while.
And now in the east where the warrior sails,
High in beauty, unclouded, that arch shall remain!
For the hues of his glory no element veils,
And the sun of our memory sinks never again!

Proud bark of our country! pass bold to the seas;
The prayers of glad millions shall hallow thy wake,
While the King of the Storms shall chasten the breeze,
Till *that* home on thy gaze shall enchantingly break.
Glide, monarch of ships! in splendour along;
Unbosom thy beauties abroad on the sky,
Thou art manned with the brave—illustrious throng!
And freighted with glory whole worlds cannot buy!

Before thee is hope—joy round thee is ringing,
And farewells behind thee float plaintively down;
While Naiads beneath their sea-music singing
Return the shrill ocean airs over thee blown.
Oh! ride on thy bright course, prosperous—free!
Thy name is a watchword—thy duty sublime!
Recollections of glory shall cluster round thee
Like that round THE BRAVE on the ocean of Time.

G. M.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

A Plea for Africa; delivered in New Haven, July 4th, 1825. By Leonard Bacon, Pastor of the First Church in New Haven. New Haven. 1825. 8vo. pp. 22.

Mr Bacon has briefly sketched the degraded condition of the African continent, and of the sons of Africa throughout the world. He makes to appear, in glowing colours, the enormous deductions from the aggregate of human happiness, caused by their sufferings, whether we view them as wandering tribes fiercely contending with each other for existence; or as transferred to other countries where slavery exists, and

bereft of the principal and choicest attributes of rational beings. Mr Bacon does not, indeed cannot, over-estimate the importance of his objects. They are worthy of the efforts of the civilized world. But his suggestions appear to us to be more philanthropic than practical.

"The problem is, (says he,) to give peace and happiness to the continent of Africa, and to elevate all her children to the rank which God has given them in the scale of existence. As one of these objects can not be gained without affecting the other; so, if we would be successful in the pursuit of either, we must aim at the attainment of both. Cover Africa with the institutions of civilized freedom, and fill it with the light of knowledge and religion, and the whole negro race is raised in a moment, from its hopeless depth of degradation. And on the other hand, give freedom and intelligence and all the rights and honours of humanity to the exiled descendants of Africa, and you have completely provided for the salvation of the continent from which they sprung." *

Mr Bacon seems to take it for granted, that if the slave-trade were abolished, intelligent Africans would spring up, he does not tell us where they are to come from, who might be formed into a colony on the coast of Africa, which would soon assume to itself all the attributes of a free and independent nation;—and that this nation would ere long redeem the continent of Africa from the gloom and superstition and misery which rest upon it;—and in the end would emancipate all slaves and abolish all slavery throughout the world. The general influence of a civilized nation in Africa upon slavery is thus described.

"It is a principle which the progress of political science has clearly and indisputably established—a principle that illustrates at once the wisdom of the Creator and the blindness of human cupidity—that it is cheaper to hire the labour of freemen than it is to compel the labour of slaves. From this principle it results, that the productions of slave labour can never enter into competition, on equal terms, with the productions of free labour. An illustration of this is furnished by the fact, that the sugar of the West-Indies, which is produced by the labour of slaves, demands the assistance of a high protecting duty, before it can contend in the English market with the sugar of the East, which is raised by the hands of freemen. We see then, that the system of slavery can be supported in a country, only so long as the slaveholders can retain either a complete or partial monopoly of such articles as they are able to raise by the labour of their drudges. And thus, whenever the civilized and enterprising population of Africa shall send forth their productions to compete in every market, with the sugar, and cotton, and coffee, of the West-Indies and Southern America, the planters will be compelled, by that spirit of improvement which always springs from competition to substitute the cheaper process for the more expensive, to adopt the labour of freemen instead of the labour of slaves, in a word, to convert their slaves into freemen."

Now we may yield our assent to all this; but there still remains the great question, which has hitherto baffled the ingenuity of politicians and philanthropists; viz. how can slaves, either in our own country or any other, be emancipated in such numbers as materially to affect the whole

* Allowing that these means would effect the attainment of the ultimate object, we still want to know how we are to attain the *means*.

slave population, without bringing in its train greater evils, both to the country and to the slaves themselves, than are at present felt?

Address delivered before the Palmetto Society of South-Carolina, in Commemoration of the Defence of the Palmetto Fort, on Sullivan's Island, (June 28th, 1776.) By William Crafts. Charleston. S. C. 1825. 8vo. pp. 21.

This address is from the pen of an accomplished scholar, well known and highly respected in this part of our country, as well as in that where he now resides. It was drawn forth on an occasion interesting to the nation, as must be all commemorations of the stout battles of the revolution, by which our liberties were achieved. The defence of Fort Moultrie, on Sullivan's Island, in 1776, was considered the defence of Charleston; and the battle, so says history, was fought with an obstinacy proportioned to the prize to be won by the enemy, and the calamities to be suffered by the country and by the inhabitants of the city in case of their defeat. We cannot extend our remarks upon Mr Crafts' eloquent address, without occupying the space, which we wish to fill with the following paragraphs in his own words.

"The sufferings and achievements of our revolutionary ancestors—are the true capital of our Republic—the precious earnings of that invaluable national stock, which is known by the name of Character. These constitute the aggregate result of the glorious deeds performed throughout this country, in the seven years' war which achieved our independence. Joint contribution of valour and of virtue to the common cause of liberty—confined to no section of territory, but as if to rebuke sectional feelings and to excite a common pride, and to ensure a lasting union, exhibited in all of our confederated states.

"Some of them stand in bolder relief than others—some were of greater importance in their immediate, or remote results, but all of them grew out of the same patriotic ardour, and none of them deserve to be forgotten. Some carry with them peculiar interest, because of the neighbourhood of their occurrence, and the kindred relation of blood and friendship. Thus, great as may be the enthusiasm which the name of Bunker Hill excites throughout our country, it resounds with peculiar charms in the ear of Massachusetts. Virginia may boast something more than American pride, in surveying the village of Yorktown, and Sullivan's Island, barren as it is, in the fond eye of Carolinians, may seem not entirely unproductive:

> Since war's dread art hath solemnized the scene,
> And graced its fleeting sands with glory's evergreen.

In the mythology of imagination, there exists what is called the genius of place. A power of natural scenery to retain, keep alive, and impart something of the spirit of departed deeds, which occurred in the vicinity, and to rekindle the ardour of virtuous action, and the admiration of noble conduct for time immemorial."

The Edinburgh Review for April, 1825.

An article on "Dr Lingard's History of England," though it finds in that work some faults, commends it on the whole so highly, that we cannot help wishing it may find its way to this country.

The second article is a very elaborate one, on "English Poetry." The

first part of it is devoted to the consideration of the nature and essence of poetry. This is so misty, that, being ourselves by nature somewhat prosaic and literal, we were not always able to understand what the author would be at. The latter part was more intelligible and entertaining to us, being a brief account of the English poets, with passing criticisms on the character of their writings.

The next article gives an excellent and to us a new account of some of the remarkable passages in the life of Napoleon, especially of those connected with the overthrow of the Directory.

An article on the "Alien Law of England" will not probably be very interesting to the American public in general, though it contains many important political views. It proposes to demonstrate the groundless nature of the claim of the crown to the right of excluding or dismissing aliens at pleasure, and it seems to us, that the point is well made out. The reviews of "Roscoe's Italian Novelists" and "The Spirit of the Age" present nothing remarkable.

The 6th article, on "High Church Opinions on Popular Education," contains some entertaining satire upon a Mr Grinfield, a writer in opposition to Mr Brougham. Remarking on Mr Brougham's Speech on this subject, the reviewer observes, that

"It would be no exaggerated estimate to assert, that fifty thousand copies are at this moment in circulation: and we sincerely wish the same general perusal to all that Mr Grinfield has written, and all that his fellow-labourers may write on the other side of the question. We go further, and wish him speedy promotion in the Church; and we cannot avoid remarking how short-sighted our rulers are, not to choose such men, men who are prone to exert themselves in appealing to the public, and who, if not always right, are at any rate not inactive, in preference to such as, 'fruges consumere nati,' think they fulfil the end of their advancement as of their creation, by remaining all their lives in a state of safe quiescence."

We decidedly approve of this doctrine. Public discussion of every important subject tends not only to public improvement, but even, on the whole, to peace, charity, and good will; and we are sincere believers in the expediency of every man's giving his opinion in such cases without hesitation. What is right and good will bear discussion, and every thing else had better be abolished. The following opinions on the subject of the New University in London cannot but be interesting.

"We regard this as altogether one of the most important events of our day, and the consequences of which are the most likely to prove extensive and lasting, in improving the understandings, and enlarging the views of the upper and middle classes of society in England. That the means of literary and scientific instruction should so long have been confined to a few hundred families of the highest rank and greatest wealth, and that the seats even of this limited education should be at a day's journey from the metropolis, will in after times hardly be credited. Unless a parent can both afford to pay about three hundred pounds a year for each son, and resolve to neglect his duty so far as to devolve upon others the whole care of their morals, nay to leave their morals almost entirely uncared for, he has no means of educating his family at all. The establishment of a college in London, where every one may obtain for his children the most complete education, at the expense of

ten or twelve pounds a year for each, retaining his parental superintendance, and not sacrificing the mutual pleasures of their society, is the complete and appropriate remedy for so great a defect. When the working classes are become scientific, their superiors, as Mr Brougham has remarked, to continue their betters, must learn a little more than they now do. Accordingly we expect most confidently the greatest increase in the education of the higher and middle classes, and the greatest improvement in their virtue, from the new Institution. We are sure, too, that one such Institution will not suffice to supply the extended demands of the country. There must soon be others, as at Durham, York, or Richmond, Exeter, and perhaps elsewhere, as soon as the magical spell is once broken, which for so many centuries has bound all men to the notion, that education can only be carried on near the Isis and Granta. The new Colleges will begin their work with immense advantages. They will have no trammels of old rules, forms, and prejudices, to hamper their proceedings; every useful art and science will be freely taught; and the young offspring of those venerable stocks will have all the virtues of the parents, without any of their antiquated frailties and more recent abuses. The good, too, thus effected, will be unmixed with evil, even to the old institutions. To certain classes, the authority of Oxford and Cambridge, their power of conferring degrees, and the fellowships, and livings, and other advantages attached to them, will always prove of superior attraction; and the more general diffusion of a taste for scientific education will greatly augment the numbers of those who, being able to afford it, will prefer an University for their sons."

The article on the "Recent History of the Catholic Question," contains a specimen of what a distinguished writer in this journal once called "writing within a foot of the gallows." The reviewer intimates distinctly enough that the Duke of York must change his mind on this subject, unless he is prepared to take the same tour with the last Duke of York, who sat upon the English throne. The seventh article, on "Mr Brougham's Inaugural Discourse," on the occasion of his installation, as Lord Rector of the University of Glasgow, brings forward some arguments in favour of the necessity and advantage of classical learning. Our opinions on this subject have been occasionally before our readers, and may be again, and are not likely to be altered by the reasoning either of Mr Brougham, or the reviewer.

INTELLIGENCE.

DR CHANNING'S DISCOURSE.

We are happy to perceive, that the discourse of the Rev. Dr Channing of this city, on the Evidences of Revealed Religion, delivered before the University in Cambridge at the Dudlean Lecture in 1821, was republished, not long since, in London; and is receiving in England the commendation which it so eminently deserves, and has already received in our own country.

QUARTERLY LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

One hundred and thirty-six original works have issued from the American press during the last quarter, including rather more than the usual share of pamphlets, as this period embraces the *fourth of July.* Fifty volumes have been reprinted and published during the same time. The whole number of new publications for the quarter, therefore, is one hundred and eighty six. We have spared no pains to make our list as complete as it was practicable to make it; but the difficulty of collecting intelligence of this kind renders it probable that some volumes have escaped our notice. If booksellers throughout the country will forward to us regularly and seasonably full lists of the exact titles of the works which they publish from time to time, together with the size and price of each, they will be inserted among our new publications, with the publishers' names annexed. We have frequently to lament the utter impossibility of making the title of new books *accurate*, from the very loose and inaccurate manner in which they are commonly advertised. We invite the attention of publishers to this subject, and beg leave to suggest to them, that they would gratify the public, as well as promote their own interest, by always advertising *exact* titles, at least while they leave us and others to get intelligence of the new books, in which they are interested, from that source alone.

MAJOR LONG'S EXPEDITION.

An edition of the narrative of Major Long's Expedition to the Source of St Peter's River, Lake Winnepeek, &c. &c. compiled by William H. Keating, one of the party who performed the expedition in 1823, has lately issued from the London press, and has been very civilly treated by the critics. A highly respectable Magazine has these remarks upon it. "The scientific details are in many parts highly valuable, and the account of the Indian tribes will be found very amusing. We are happy to remark in this as well as in other instances, that works of merit from the American press are immediately republished in this country, and that the Americans are repaying a portion of that literary debt, which has been so long due from them." And right glad shall we be when "that debt" is fairly liquidated; for no situation can be more uncomfortable than to be under obligations to those who are constantly magnifying them—dinning the fact in.o the ears of the world—and putting on airs upon the strength of it.

PROJECT FOR A LITERARY ASYLUM.

M. Legendre, member of the Academy of Sciences, has published an "Essay on a proposed literary compact between learned men throughout the world." It is mentioned in this work, that two celebrated Americans, *Joel Barlow* and *Robert Fulton*, formerly digested and proposed a plan of a "Literary Asylum." The object was to give mutual aid and succour at some appointed place, to the learned of all countries, who might become the victims of tyranny and injustice. The design of the present work is to direct the attention of the republic of letters to this subject. Had the efforts of our deceased countrymen succeeded, the illustrious and learned exiles of Spain, who are now suffering in

London, would have been enjoying the benefits of such an institution. No men would have a better claim to them, whether we consider their merit or their misfortunes.

BOTTA'S HISTORY OF ITALY.

M. Charles Botta has published at Paris in Italian and French a history of Italy from the year 1789 to 1814, in five volumes. In this work, as in his history of our Revolution, he has adopted the method of the ancient Greek and Roman historians. His narrations abound in details, his descriptions are highly animated and embellished with those ornaments which interest the feelings, excite the imagination, and please the taste. He often introduces those oratorical addresses or dramatic scenes, with which the ancients enlivened and dignified their historical compositions; and he has adapted them even better than they to circumstances and characters. His descriptions of armies and of military movements are particularly excellent. The retaking of Toulon, the battles of Italy, and the capture of Arcola are painted to the mind's eye with the precision and vividness of the reality. M. Botta was often a witness, and in some instances an actor, in the scenes which he describes.

LITERATURE OF MODERN GREECE.

The Greek press is beginning to be almost as active as the Greek armies. Newspapers are now issued in various towns; and works of taste as well as school-books, for which there appears to be a great and increasing demand, are now published and find readers there. One of these has lately been translated at Paris by M. Lemcocier of the Institute. It is entitled "War Songs of the Grecian Mariners and Mountaineers." From the specimens we have seen, says a writer in the *Revue Encyclopédique*, we think that these poems are highly honourable to the national taste of the Greeks; and that they are not unworthy of the countrymen of Homer and Pindar. The actions of Botsaris and Androtzas, and other illustrious martyrs of Grecian liberty are commemorated.

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

Our neighbours of Nova Scotia are becoming every day more interesting, although they engage apparently less of our attention than the remotest provinces of Europe or South America. Their agriculture, to which the soil is extremely well adapted, is beginning to flourish; and their commerce, already considerable, seems capable of vast increase from the magnitude of their rivers, the extent of seacoast, and the multitude of excellent harbours. Their government is the same as that of New England was, before the Revolution. They have a royal governor, a council, a house of representatives, and a militia. The royal college at Windsor, the president of which has lately been travelling in our republic, may well claim the title of a university. Its courses of study embrace theology, metaphysics, moral philosophy, mathematics, astronomy, the natural sciences, logic, languages (including the oriental), rhetoric, &c. There are many other seminaries in the

province, which resemble our academies. In general, great attention is paid to education, and a happy futurity seems to await the inhabitants of this flourishing province.

MANUSCRIPT OF THE ILIAD.

Captain Clifford of the Navy has carried to England the celebrated MS. upon papyrus, of a portion of Homer's Iliad for the University of Cambridge. This MS. was discovered in the island of Elephantina in Upper Egypt, by a French gentleman. It is written in what are termed *uncial* letters, of the most beautiful form, and may probably be ascribed to the age of the Ptolemies. The most remarkable feature connected with this ancient and invaluable manuscript is, that there are accents, which must have been added by a later hand. It contains only the last book.

CRYSTALLINE LENSES OF ANIMALS, EMPLOYED AS MICROSCOPES.

Dr Brewster, so well known to the scientific world, has suggested the employment of the crystalline lenses of animals as single microscopes. In cases where high magnifying powers are required, no artifical lenses which we can obtain, being, as he says, either in their external form or in their internal structure, so perfect as those which we receive from the hand of nature. The crystalline lenses of *fishes*, from their superior density, which renders them less liable to injury than others, are, Dr B. says, the best adapted to this use; and the only precaution necessary in employing them is to place the lens so, that its optical axis, and the axis of vision in the eye of the observer, shall correspond; which may easily be done by adjusting the lens to a concave aperture in a small plate of metal, &c. A lens thus disposed will, it is said, preserve its transparency for some hours.

In cases where *high* magnifying powers are not required, the crystalline lenses of *quadrupeds* will, however, we may add, be found more convenient than those of *fishes*, as embracing a larger field of view, and as they are in general easily attainable, and often in situations where no artifical lens can be procured. A knowledge of this fact may frequently be of use to the naturalist.

FREEDOM OF ELECTIONS IN FRANCE.

At a meeting of the *Académie des Sciences de l' Institut* of France, at Paris, it was opened by the election of a new member in the place of M. le Baron Percy. The choice fell on M. Dupuytren, the celebrated surgeon. It was generally understood that M. Serres would have been elected, had the members been permitted entire freedom of choice. The president, however, hastened to inform the meeting that it was His Majesty's wish that M. Dupuytren, his surgeon, should be elected. Immediately a letter was read from four other candidates, saying, that having only their scientific recommendations, they withdrew from the contest. Much scandal arose out of this nomination, the regulations requiring three candidates, and there being only two remaining. M C. Dupin moved an adjournment, adding that when the king was informed that men, so honourable as the candidates, had withdrawn, he would not

fail of leaving to the academy that freedom which ought to preside at its elections. M. Dupin was lately made a Baron by the king; and those of his friends that thought his acceptance of the title had in some measure obscured his fame, now congratulate each other, and say that in the sitting of yesterday, "*il s'est bien debaronisé.*" What is likely to be the freedom of political elections, when such an interference is tolerated in those of a purely scientific association?

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

A Manual of Electricity; containing Observations on the Electrical Phenomena, and Directions for the Construction of Metallic Conductors; &c. By William King, Medical Electrician and Lecturer on Electricity and Galvanism. Newbern, N. C.

Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. Vol. v. Nos. 3 and 4.

LAW.

The Doctrine of Constructive Larceny considered, as developed in the recent Case of George Tyson, the Stock and Exchange Broker, who was tried at the Mayor's Court, for the City of Philadelphia, at the March Session, in 1825. By Charles B. Mumford, Esq. of the Philadelphia Bar. 8vo. pp. 36. Philadelphia.

MEDICINE.

On the Surgical Anatomy of the Groin, as connected with the Hernia of the Abdomen. By Alexander F. Vaché, of New York.

Typhus Syncopalis, Sinking Typhus, or the Spotted Fever of New England, as it appeared in the Epidemic of 1823, in Middletown, Ct. By Thomas Miner, M. D. Middletown, Ct.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The North American Review. No 49, for October, 1825.

The Manufacturer's Book of Wages and Work People's Companion. By J. Morgan. In two Parts. 8vo.

An Address delivered before the Palmetto Society of South Carolina, in Commemoration of the Defence of the Palmetto Fort, on Sullivan's Island, (June 28, 1776). By By William Crafts. 8vo. pp. 21. Charleston, S. C. A. E. Miller.

The New York Review and Atheneum Magazine. No. IV. for September, 1825.

The Inquisition Examined. No. IV. New York.

Report of the Committee on Laws, to the Corporation of the City of New York, on the Subject of Interment within the populous Parts of the City, read and adopted at a special Meeting of the said Corporation, on the 9th of June, 1825. 8vo. pp. 75. New York. M. Day.

The African Repository and Colonial Journal. Vol. I. No. 6.

POETRY.

Zophiel, a Poem. By Mrs Brooks. 18mo. pp. 72. Boston. Richardson & Lord.

A New Song Book. By Samuel Brown. 18mo. pp. 86. Cincinnati, Ohio, S. I. Brown.

THEOLOGY.

A Discourse delivered in the Middle Dutch Church in Cedar Street, on Sunday evening, June 12, 1825, on Occasion of the Death of Mrs Mary Laidlie. By Richard Varick Dey, A. M. Pastor of the Congregational Church, Greenfield Hill, Ct. New York, Wilder & Campbell.

A Sermon, delivered at the Ordination of the Rev. Hosea Hildreth, A. M. to the Pastoral Care of the First Church in Gloucester, August 3, 1825. By Abiel Holmes, D. D. Pastor of the First Church in Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 30. Cambridge, Hilliard & Metcalf.

The Christian Spectator. Vol. VII. No. 9.

A Sermon delivered at Winthrop, April 7, 1825, the annual Fast in Maine. By David Thurston, Pastor of a Church in Winthrop, Me. Augusta.

Remarks on the Distinguishing Doctrine of Universalism, which teaches that there is no Hell and no Punishment for the Wicked after Death. By Adam Empie, A. M. Rector of St James's Church, Wilmington, N. C. Price 75 cents.

The Christian Examiner and Theological Review. No. 10.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

The Edinburgh Review, No. 83.

The Novice; or the Man of Integrity, from the French of L. B. Picard, author of "The Gil Blas of the Revolution," &c. 2 vols. 12mo. New York, G. & C. Carvill.

Husband Hunting, or the Mother and Daughters; a Tale of Fashionable Life. 2. vols. 12mo. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

An Elementary System of Physiology. By John Bostock, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. Vol I. 8vo. pp. 416. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

The Lectures of Sir Astley Cooper, Bart. F. R. S. Surgeon to the King, &c. on the Principles and Practice of Surgery; with additional Notes and Cases. By Frederick Tyrrell, Esq. Vol. I. 8vo. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

The Christian Father's Present to his Children. By J. A. James. 2 vols. 18mo. Boston. Crocker & Brewster.

Tremaine, or The Man of Refinement. 3 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia. E. Littell.

Letters on the Importance, Duty, and Advantages of Early Rising, Addressed to Heads of Families, the Man of Business, the Lover of Nature, the Student, and the Christian. By A. C. Buckland. Reprinted from the fifth London Edition, with an additional Letter and a Preface. Boston, 1825. 18mo. pp. 237. Wells & Lilly.

This work contains a few good thoughts, but it is on the whole a canting, silly book—not worth the trouble of reading. It is written in the form of letters, and a great deal of space is of course taken up in beginning and concluding them with matter totally irrelevant to the subject. The author undertakes to show from reason and *scripture*, that it is our interest and our

duty to practise early rising. He thinks the morning by far the most favourable part of the day for intellectual efforts, as well as for all other efforts, and endeavours to show that an hour A. M. is about twice as long as an hour P. M. Upon this point we think honest men may differ from him. But he has proved to demonstration, that he, who sleeps only six hours in twenty-four, will be awake two hours longer than he who sleeps eight. And this is the amount of his achievement.

LIST OF WORKS IN PRESS.

Nature Displayed; By N. G. Dufief. Adapted to the Spanish Language, by Don Mariano Velasquez de la Cadena, L. Hargons, Professor of Universal Grammar, and Don Manuel Torres, late Minister Plenipotentiary from the Republic of Colombia to the United States. New York.

Pike's System of Arithmetic abridged; designed to facilitate the study of the Science of Numbers, &c To which are added Appropriate Questions, for the Examination of Scholars and a short System of Book-Keeping. Concord, N. H. J. B. Moore,

New Ciphering Book; adapted to Pike's Arithmetic abridged; including a variety of useful Tables; Promiscuous Exercises in all the Rules; and illustrative Notes. With entire Blank Pages of fine Paper sufficient for writing down all the most interesting operations of the Scholar. Concord, N. H. J. B. Moore.

English Grammar, with an Improved Syntax. Part I. Comprehending at one view what is necessary to be committed to memory. Part II. Containing a recapitulation, with various illustrations and critical remarks. By J. M. Putnam. Designed for the use of Schools. Cambridge. Hilliard & Metcalf.

The Works of the Rev. Richard Cecil, M. A. Late Rector of Bisley, and Vicar of Chobham Surrey, and Minister of St John's Chapel, Bedford Row, London; with a Memoir of his Life, arranged and revised with a View of the Author's Character. By Josiah Pratt, B. D. F. A. S. &c. in 3 vols. 12mo. Boston. Crocker and Brewster.

New England Drama, a New Play in five Acts. Boston.

A Treatise on Christian Doctrine, compiled from the Holy Scriptures alone. By John Milton. Translated from the Original, by C. R. Sumner, A. M. Librarian and Historiographer to His Majesty, and Prebendary of Canterbury. 2 vols. 8vo. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. and others.

The Atlantic Souvenir—A Christmas and New Year's Offering. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

An Exposition of the Natural System of the Nerves of the Human Body, with a Republication of the Papers delivered to the Royal Society on the Subject of the Nerves. By Charles Bell, Professor of Anatomy and Surgery to the Royal College of Surgeons. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co., and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74 Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

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REVIEWS.

An Address delivered before the American Academy of Fine Arts. By William Beach Lawrence. New York. 1825. pp. 44.

Some time has elapsed, since we first read this address, and formed the design of giving it proper notice. Other avocations have delayed the execution of our purpose hitherto; but we now resume it; and shall devote several pages to the consideration of so grateful a subject, as that which is discussed by Mr Lawrence. It consists of what he modestly calls "a cursory notice of some of the most interesting epochs of the arts." After a passing allusion to the state of sculpture and architecture among the ancient Jews and Egyptians, he dwells at some length upon the cultivation of the arts of design among the Greeks, the Romans, and the modern Italian states; and closes with patriotic reflections on the fitness of our country, and of the genius of our countrymen, for the advancement of the ornamental pursuits of a liberal taste.

In regard to this last topic, although we deprecate the practice of grossly exaggerating our national advantages, yet we hold it to be the mark of a fastidious, nay of a small and superficial mind, to complain of men for being rationally and greatly proud of their country. National pride, so long as it does not degenerate into a supercilious contempt of other countries, is a just, a laudible, a useful pride. It is intimately associated with all that is most noble in the aspirations of a people after excellence. Who, among the nations of the old

world, were more proud of their native land than the Greeks, who stigmatized all foreigners indiscriminately as barbarians; or among the Greeks, than the Athenians, who claimed to be exclusively the primeval children of the soil! Who, again, rated themselves by a more exalted standard, or in their writings, language, and acts more haughtily arrogated the intellectual, as well as the territorial, empire of the earth, than the stern old Romans? And if we seek for instances nearer home, where do we find the workings of a more extravagant spirit of self-gratulation, where more unqualified national boastfulness, than in the writings of the French, and especially of the English? And yet no people have carried the arts of civilized life, whether useful or liberal, to a higher pitch of refinement than these; and their example proves, what all history confirms, that a confidence in our powers, a conviction of our superiority, and a high trust in our destinies, are indispensably requisite to the attainment of extraordinary greatness. How pregnant with instruction upon this point is the history of letters in Germany. Whilst her courts and scholars, awed by the name or persuaded by the influence of the great Frederick, conspired to undervalue their native language, how poor, barren, and imitative was that literature, which, now that indigenous beauties have come to be esteemed, has not its mistress for richness and originality in all Europe. Let us then resolve, not to magnify every crudity which springs up amongst us into a prodigy of excellence, but to feel the most hearty and well-founded assurance in our own national capabilities, if we ever desire to witness the developement of those mighty resources, wherewith fortune has blest our country.

The piece before us, from which we have insensibly digressed a little, is written with much elegance, and takes a very just and perspicuous, though rather desultory, view of the objects within the scope of its plan. Adopting a somewhat wider range, we shall deduce from it, and from other sources within our reach, a brief account of the establishment and progress of the fine arts among those nations, to whom we look for the genuine principles of taste.

How limited is the source from which these are derived! The enterprising and inventive genius of modern Europe has assembled the productions of every clime, to minister to man. There is no sea which his keels have not severed, no sky where his sails have not been unfurled, no land which his restless and excursive spirit has not explored; and from every

where he draws the richest treasures for the gratification of his luxury or his wants. But his principles of taste, though modified by circumstances, and improved, as his knowledge expands, with constant study and enlarged experience, are yet substantially the same as they were, ere his studies or his wanderings began. He has gazed on the airy and fanciful pagodas of the East, without losing his admiration of the Parthenon; nor has the discovery of the colossal creations of Egyptian art diminished the pleasure which the sight of the Apollo Belvidere and Medicean Venus imparts. The "magicians in marble," who carved the wonderful works of Greek design, if they could revisit the earth, would behold even the fragments of their matchless productions not less rapturously received by polished nations now, than when originally springing forth in pristine beauty from their chisels. And to the Greeks, indeed, we must acknowledge ourselves indebted for the basis of all that decorative taste and elegance, which we boast of as distinguishing our own refined age.

What perfection the art of painting had attained in Greece we can judge only by the testimony of classic authors, and by the admiration, which celebrated painters enjoyed among their countrymen. Zeuxis attended the Olympian games, wearing a garment with his name embroidered in golden letters upon the border; and his rival, Parrhasius, appeared there clad in purple robes, and bearing a golden garland. In Zeuxis, Polygnotus, and Timantes, says Tully, we praise the forms and lineaments; but all things are perfect in Aëtion, Nicomachus, Protogenes, and Apelles. It is related of Protogenes, that when Demetrius Poliorcetes might have put a speedy end to the siege of Rhodes by assaulting it in the quarter which Protogenes inhabited, he refused to incur the hazard of injuring the pictures of this artist; and that after the city surrendered, he said he would sooner destroy the images of his father than these admirable productions. But of Apelles, the master of Grecian painting, the fame and the reputed excellence were alike unequalled. He began the picture of the Coan Venus, and after entirely finishing the head and the upper part of the bust, left the rest of the body imperfect; but no other painter durst undertake the task of completing it; "oris enim pulchritudo reliqui corporis imitandi spem auferebat." Alexander suffered himself to be modelled by Lysippus and painted by Apelles alone; not merely because they only were worthy to do it, but because their divine art would

reflect equally lasting glory on him and them; and when he was drawn by Apelles, the courtiers said there were two Alexanders, one invincible, born of Olympias, and the other inimitable, created by Apelles.

Shall we deem these praises of the ancient painters extravagant? Could they, who transmitted to posterity such splendid monuments of perfect taste in other things, have made a mistaken estimate of the beauty of a picture. We are not fond of indiscriminate eulogy of the ancients. The time is past by, when classic learning was the only test of scholarship, and adulation of the ancients conclusive evidence of correct taste. But the best critics are satisfied of the perfection of Greek painters, at least in Alexander's time, in all the essential qualities of the art. Modern painters may have more of scientific excellence in the management of perspective, and in the composition of figures, but in design, expression, invention, colouring, we do not believe they surpass the ancients.

Happily, the genius of ancient sculptors and architects was exercised on more durable objects than canvass, and works of theirs yet survive, to attest the perfection of the art. Were it not so, sceptical inquirers might as reasonably deny the wonderful excellence of Phidias, as of Apelles. But the broken relic of a façade, the magnificent ruin of a temple or an arch, or a single inimitably perfect statue, has outlived the ravages of time and barbarism, to be the models for us of all that is most beautiful in their kind, and to give us an idea of the miracles of taste and skill, which Greek art could produce. As it is, we meet with no difficulty in crediting the well known story, that Nicomedes, King of Bithynia, offered to discharge the large public debt of Cnidos, as the price of Praxiteles' Naked Venus, which belonged to that Island; or that the offer was rejected by the Cnidians. What is there strange in the fact related by Livy, that when Paulus Æmilius beheld the magnificent colossal statue of the Olympian Jupiter made by Phidias, he was struck with awe, as if in the actual presence of the Thunderer? Well might Lucian hazard the saying that Phidias was adored in his sublime productions; for surely if any thing could furnish an apology for the transfer of worship from the being represented to the representation, it would be the glorious creations of genius, which adorned the splendid and beautiful temples of the Greeks.

Whence this extraordinary developement of art in that ingenious people? It is vain to think of giving credit for their literature and fine arts to the Egyptians. There is abundance of the vast and the lofty in the style of the latter, but they seldom or never embody in their works that ideal majesty, which a perfect taste requires. The pyramids may outlive the wreck of the present races of men, as they have the memory of their builders; but the obelisks and pyramids, to use the words of Volney, "in their massive structure, attest less the genius of an opulent people, the patrons of the arts, than the servitude of a nation tormented by the caprice of its rulers." What is there, indeed, in colossal beetles, in flat-nosed sphinxes, or in heads of Isis with depending cow's ears, akin to the refined elegance of the Greeks? If, as Belzoni supposes, the orders of Grecian architecture were extracted from the confused and multifarious capitals of the Egyptians, our admiration of the original is lost in the surpassing excellence of the copy.

The question then recurs, how were the Greeks enabled to attain that perfection in the arts of design, to which two thousand years have added so little improvement? Did they possess a more exalted capacity than we do? Was the soul among them, endued with more etherial qualities, just as the brow was more relieved, and the orbit of the eye larger, than with other nations? We should not readily accede to this hypothesis. Or did the brilliant, pure, and elastic atmosphere of Greece afford a more inspiring *pabulum* to her sons, and her exquisite climate, the clearer sunshine of her sky, "the richer burst of her spring," and the more luxuriant splendour of her vegetation make her a more congenial abode to genius than less fortunate lands? This alone, whatever influence it had, will not serve to explain the phenomenon; for the same bright sun continued to shine out upon the olive groves of Achaia, and the same balmy air breathed along the shores of Hellas, long after her bards had ceased to sing the accents of inspiration, and the hands of her sculptors had lost the guidance of inventive genius.

Or was it the stormy agitations of democracy, and the kindling spirit of "the mountain goddess, Liberty," which elicited those masterly displays of intellect, and created those matchless works of divine art, to which we now recur with almost despairing admiration? Much undoubtedly is attributable to this cause. The most splendid epoch of the fine arts

was also rendered illustrious by the birth of poets, philosophers, and heroes, who became the examplars of all succeeding times; and this period, so exuberant of genius, closed with the fall of the republican governments. The capricious patronage of princes communicated a feeble impulse, compared with the eager emulation of rival states, and the keen, ardent, enthusiastic temper, which the popular institutions created and fostered, and which displayed itself in the commercial enterprise, the philosophy, the literature, the zeal for the useful and ornamental arts, the eloquence and the heroism, which have immortalized the petty republics of Greece.

Of this, the wonderfully rapid developement of intellect in our own country may give us no inadequate idea. But how shall we figure to ourselves the effect of the public games of Greece upon the imitative arts? Of exhibitions, where all that was tasteful and elegant, all that was calculated to excite competition, was concentrated, as it were, in a focus of dazzling brilliancy? Where the most perfect models of the human shape were subjected, in their naked beauty, to the eye of the sculptor and painter; and where the successful competitors for the palm of superiority enjoyed honours but little short of those bestowed on the gods?

Potent as were some of these causes, they yielded in influence, we apprehend, to the peculiar mythology of the Greeks. Had they adored the one God as a pure and mystic spirit, the chisel and the pencil would never have been tasked to represent the form and features of divinity; and had they not worshipped gods of a more exalted character than the nation which has been esteemed by many their parent and master people, Phidias would have been commissioned to mould the limbs of a sacred heifer, instead of embodying in statuary Homer's sublime conception of Jupiter shaking Olympus with his nod. Marble or metallic images of immortal beings, the object of adoration; temples erected for their worship; statues of heroes translated to heaven, or of living men possessed of heroic or godlike attributes,—such were the subjects, to which Grecian art was applied. Here was the secret and mysterious inspiration of the sculptor. He was producing works for immortality; nay, he was modelling the very shape and lineaments of incarnate immortality itself. He was ministering to the pomp and pride, the ceremony and circumstance, of the most splendid and imposing religion, which ever appealed to the imagination of man for support.

His aim was to represent the ideal perfection of divine beings, known to him only by the superhuman powers which they possessed and displayed, and to whose images it was therefore necessary to impart superhuman beauty and majesty; and with all the stimulating motives, which we have hastily mentioned, operating upon him, can we feel surprised that his exalted aim was accomplished?

Supremacy in the fine arts did not pass to Rome with the empire of the region, which was their chosen abode. Whilst in Athens none but men of ingenuous birth could exercise the ingenuous arts, in Rome they were considered a servile occupation. The cognomen of Pictor was probably given to C. Fabius more in derision than in honour; for nearly two centuries elapsed before another person of respectable family imitated his example, when Pacuvius, the nephew of Ennius, painted the temple of Hercules; and these names stand almost alone in the history of the republic. Indeed, the austere conquerors of Greece beheld the cultivation of the polite arts united in the vanquished people with luxury and effeminacy of manners; and their martial spirit not unnaturally contemned pursuits seemingly adverse to the attainment of eminence in the arts of war and policy, which had procured their own aggrandizement. And when Rome became, under the sway of her Cæsars, the centre of all the luxury of all her subject kingdoms, she was contented still to depend upon Greek artists, and the spoils of Greece, for sculpture and paintings to decorate her magnificent temples, palaces, baths, theatres, and triumphal arches. And although Cicero was candid enough to lament the weakness of his countrymen in harshly disdaining the elegant arts, which his Greek education taught him to admire and prize, yet so inveterate was the feeling at Rome, that her noblest poet could descend, in her noblest poem, to boast of her inferiority in sister arts.

> Excudent alii spirantia mollius æra,
> Credo equidem: vivos ducent de marmore vultus:—
> Tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento:
> Hæ tibi erunt artes.

The ancient Romans, therefore, accelerated not the advancement of the fine arts, any otherwise than by giving encouragement and patronage to the Greeks. It was reserved for Italy, in more modern times, when the last faint relic of Grecian glory was eclipsed by the baneful ascendency of the crescent, to catch the expiring torch of genius, from the hands which

were now too feeble to hold it, rekindle its celestial flame, and transmit the sacred deposite uninjured to the rising nations of Western Europe.

[*To be continued.*]

Ἀναλεκτα Ἑλληνικὰ Μείζονα, *sive Collectanea Græca Majora, ad usum Academicæ Juventutis accommodata; cum Notis philologicis, quas partim collegit, partim scripsit* ANDREAS DALZEL, A. M. &c. Editio quarta Americana, ex Auctoribus correcta, prioribus emendatior, cum Notis aliquot interjectis. Cantabrigiæ, Mass. E prelo Universitatis. Sumptibus Cummings, Hilliard, & Soc. Bibliopolarum, Bostoniæ et Cantabrigiæ. 2 vols. 8vo.

THE best criterion, by which to estimate the value of works designed to facilitate the purposes of education, is actual experiment. The present selections from Greek literature have been many years before the public, and have constantly been coming more widely into use. Of the first volume, there have appeared in England and Scotland at least eight, we believe nine, several editions, and five or six of the second; and in the United States, we have now the fourth edition of the whole work from the press of the University at Cambridge. A book, to meet with such success, must be well adapted to its end. In some instances, perhaps, better judgment might have been shown in choosing from the vast range of Grecian eloquence and poetry. We should have preferred specimens of Æschines to the oration of Lysias; Plutarch, one would have thought, had as good a claim to appear, as Polyænus or Ælian. We confess also our inability to discover much to admire in the extracts from the tedious epic of Apollonius. His style is often obscure; his images deficient in simplicity; and his delineations of the passions cannot move the reader, because they are not true to nature. But on the other hand, we have in these Collectanea interesting selections from the three earliest masters of the historic art; and now the new edition contains two passages of great value from Polybius. Isocrates is introduced to the young with the wise language of virtue and experience on his lips;—the best parts of the Philippics of Demosthenes, and a celebrated passage from his oration for his Crown, cannot fail to convey an idea of his superiority in

eloquence;—and the young student of Greek is introduced to the character of Socrates in the amiable narration of Xenophon, and the studied eloquence of Plato. Were we to designate any parts of the second volume as particularly acceptable, we should mention the two tragedies, and the extracts from the Odyssey, containing, not indeed the sublimest, but some of the most pleasing descriptions and attractive tales of the Chian Bard.

But we return to our more immediate subject, which is the merit of the edition before us. Of all the editions, which have thus far appeared in Great Britain or America, we do not hesitate to pronounce this to be the most correct. It exhibits the clearest marks of indefatigable diligence and conscientious accuracy on the part of its learned and unassuming editor. Instead of vague and indiscriminating praise, we will endeavour to explain its peculiar advantages. Our account will be a short one, though the labours which we commemorate extended through years.

The chief object of the American editor. Professor John S. Popkin of Cambridge, was, to make the book a correct one. It had gone through so many editions, and each new one had repeated so many of the errors of the last, and made so many of its own, that both the text and the notes had become very much disfigured. Not only accents and letters were often wanting, but words, and sometimes whole lines, were omitted; especially in the notes. In the third American edition, these were in a good degree amended; in the fourth the same purpose has been most assiduously pursued. To do this, the original sources of the notes and text were consulted; and these, together with other good editions of the several writers, were diligently compared. Not a few fractures and dislocations were repaired by means of an early edition of the Collectanea. When the sense was found broken and obscure, it appeared on examination that words, lines, and sometimes several lines had been omitted; particularly, where a word was repeated at no great distance, the intervening words were sometimes passed over in printing.

In the text, not many changes of reading have been admitted;* and these were such as appeared plainly requisite, and

* There is one addition, which Professor Popkin, on further reflection, will probably feel inclined to condemn. A line has been admitted after v. 40 in the Medea. According to the explanation of Mr Elmsley, the word τύραννος means the *princess*;

were mostly introduced in the improved English editions, and recommended in the notes of this collection;* and the notes, with the exception of one or two slight verbal alterations and the attempt to adapt them to the changes in the text, are reprinted entire. We beg pardon of our readers for our minuteness, while we go on to observe, that here and there useful references and short notices are added to the notes. Still more good has been done by correcting and amending the references in many places, and making them, as far as possible, to chapter and section; since it is a very inconvenient practice to refer to pages only, in a work which is probably printed in many different forms. And toward the end of vol. ii. a few more notes have been added, for which the materials were furnished by editions, not published at the time when Mr Dalzel first made his compilation.

We hope we have said enough to justify our preference of Professor Popkin's edition of the Græca Majora over any other. To give a more distinct idea of what he has accomplished, we venture to affirm, after a close computation which may be relied upon, that of errata in the copy, greater and less, he has corrected as many as ten thousand. If, after all his care and pains, he has made any or left any, they can easily be marked and corrected, as the present edition has been made on stereotyped plates. It was an undertaking of long and toilsome diligence to correct the press and the copy of a work of this kind, collected from so many sources, and referring to so many authorities. Not less than five hundred volumes were of necessity consulted. Professor Popkin entered upon this task because he knew that no other would probably take the like pains, who had at the same time access to the like means. In Europe many a man has attained to a wide reputation for scholarship by exploits, which required far less

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and his interpretation is probably the correct one, though it seems harsh, that this word should so soon and so abruptly be used in the feminine gender without the article. It is so used in v. 873: Γήμας τύραννον. Verse 40 must indicate the children, notwithstanding the apparent abruptness and want of preparation. It is intimated in the preceding verses, and more plainly signified below, in verses 89, 118, &c.

* For an example of this, see vol. i. p. 113. l. 30. διέστανται for ἵστανται. In the same volume, p. 73. l. 22, Professor Popkin has ventured to insert καὶ for reasons mentioned in the note; and it seems too to be supported by a similar expression, p. 115. l. 9. These we mention as the boldest instances; and surely an editor who has taken no greater liberties, cannot be blamed for temerity.

critical skill than the present has called forth. We could wish, that the learned Professor might not be deprived of any portion of the honour due to him, because instead of preparing for the public an edition of some masterpiece of Grecian genius, in his own name and more directly for the advancement of his own reputation, he has contented himself with amending the faults, and supplying the deficiencies of others. He has shown himself to be profound in his knowledge of Greek literature, and also most exact in his acquaintance with Greek Grammar, even to the nicest points in the doctrine of the accents.

There never can arrive a time, when business will be so engrossing, and inventions so numerous, and the direct wants of society so exclusively important, that some minds cannot be spared from the current of the world to contemplate in speculative leisure the beautiful remains of antiquity. It may be a question, how far the two languages, which have so long been cherished by almost every friend of letters, should form the basis of all higher education. It is well for the country, that at least some should be imbued with this kind of knowledge, that some should be led backwards to the origin of culture, and permitted to trace the progress of knowledge, refinement, and civil liberty from their springs; and it is certainly desirable on their account to perfect as far as possible the means of instruction in the learned languages. While therefore different opinions may be entertained as to the extent of the benefit done to the cause of education by exertions like those of Professor Popkin, there can be but one mind on the subject of his industry and learning, and the advantages conferred by them on the particular branch of study, which he intended to promote.

Life and Character of the Chevalier John Paul Jones, a Captain in the Navy of the United States, during their Revolutionary War. Dedicated to the Officers of the American Navy. By John Henry Sherburne, Register of the Navy of the United States. City of Washington. 1825. 8vo. pp. 387.

The name of Paul Jones has been familiar to our ears from earliest infancy; and such has ever been its magic, that we have never sought authentic information of his life and actions, without a secret anxiety lest it should trespass upon the po-

etical corner, he has so long held in our minds, by the romance of his real or supposed adventures. Without any mixture of poetry, the sober judgment of the world will probably be, that for intuitive sagacity, and invincible and devoted courage as a naval commander, he has had no rival, except Nelson, in either hemisphere. In England it has been the fashion to represent him as a pirate, robber, and assassin; and never did dishonest representations more completely pervert the public mind. About a twelvemonth ago, we saw in the windows of grub-street booksellers in London, Manchester, and other towns of England, a very sanguinary and frightful engraving, it being the frontispiece of a sixpenny pamphlet, representing "the Famous Scotch Pirate, Paul Jones, in the act of blowing out the brains of his first mate for offering to strike the colours." Nearly at the same time there appeared in the "New Monthly Magazine," a tolerably liberal and candid account of his life. This was probably in consequence of the publication in this country of "The Pilot." Jones is now beginning to have that justice done him, which was denied him in his life-time, and has been but faintly rendered him even to the present day. The work before us adds to the materials, for the biography of this extraordinary man, but it neither combines nor makes them complete. It will aid essentially some other writer in producing, what itself has little pretension to be called a "Life and Character of John Paul Jones." It consists almost wholly of the writings of Captain, or rather of Admiral Jones, for to that rank he at last attained. He was a good writer, and poorly as the various documents are connected and arranged, no one can read the book without feeling a deep interest in the character and fortunes of the hero. These documents are official and private letters, marine journals, projects of naval expeditions, and plans for the improvement of the then infant navy of the United States. Capt. Jones's letters, detailing the events of his two most memorable expeditions, are uncommonly interesting. We know of no better models for composition of the kind. The following extract is from the account of the capture of the Drake sloop of war of twenty guns by the Ranger, off Carrickfergus, on the 24th of May, 1778.

Alarm smokes now appeared in great abundance, extending along on both sides of the channel. The tide was unfavourable, so that the Drake worked out but slowly. This obliged me to run down several times, and to lay with courses up, and main-topsail to the mast. At length

the Drake weathered the point, and having led her out to about mid-channel, I suffered her to come within hail. The Drake hoisted English colours, and at the same instant, the American stars were displayed on board the Ranger. I expected that preface had been now at an end, but the enemy soon after hailed, demanding what ship it was? I directed the master to answer, "the American Continental ship Ranger; that we waited for them, and desired that they would come on; the sun was now little more than an hour from setting, it was therefore time to begin." The Drake being astern of the Ranger, I ordered the helm up, and gave her the first broadside. The action was warm, close, and obstinate. It lasted an hour and four minutes, when the enemy called for quarters; her fore and main-topsail yards being both cut away, and down on the cap; the top-gallant yard and mizen-gaff both hanging up and down along the mast; the second ensign which they had hoisted shot away, and hanging on the quarter gallery in the water; the jib shot away, and hanging in the water; her sails and rigging entirely cut to pieces; her masts and yards all wounded, and her hull also very much galled. I lost only Lieut. Wallingsford and one seaman, John Dougall, killed, and six wounded; among whom are the gunner, Mr Falls, and Mr Powers, a midshipman, who lost his arm. One of the wounded, Nathaniel Wills, is since dead; the rest will recover. The loss of the enemy in killed and wounded, was far greater. All the prisoners allow, that they came out with a number not less than a hundred and sixty men; and many of them affirm that they amounted to a hundred and ninety. The medium may, perhaps, be the most exact account; and by that it will appear that they lost in killed and wounded, forty-two men. The captain and lieutenant were among the wounded. The former, having received a musket ball in the head the minute before they called for quarters, lived, and was sensible sometime after my people boarded the prize. The lieutenant survived two days. They were buried with the honours due to their rank, and with the respect due to their memory.

The battle which terminated in the capture of the British frigate Serapis, was the most daring and desperate sea-fight that history records. The *Bon homme Richard* carried ten guns less than the Serapis, and in weight of metal was still more inferior, having only *six*, while the Serapis had *twenty* eighteen pounders. Jones's crew was numerically superior to that of the enemy by the number of sixty, but it was composed of all nations, and included forty-two boys. An unhappy misunderstanding had existed during the whole cruise, between Jones and some of the officers of his squadron, particularly Capt. Landais of the frigate Alliance, and this officer repeatedly refused to obey the Commodore's orders or reply to his signals. Landais was a Frenchman, whom Congress had taken into our service and appointed to the command of the Alliance. If half of the concurrent testimony of all the other officers who

served in this expedition be true, he ought not only to have lost his commission, but his life, for his most atrocious conduct in this affair. Landais applied to Dr Franklin to be reinstated in the command of the Alliance after her return from the cruise. To this application Dr Franklin replied as follows:

> No one has ever learned the opinion I formed of you from the inquiry made into your conduct. I kept it entirely to myself—I have not even hinted it in my letters to America, because I would not hazard giving to any one a bias to your prejudice. By communicating *a part of that opinion* privately to you, I can do no harm, for you may burn it. I should not give you the pain of reading it, if your demand did not make it necessary: I think you then so imprudent, so litigious, and quarrelsome a man, even with your best friends, that peace and good order, and consequently the quiet and regular subordination so necessary to success, are, where you preside, impossible; these are within my observation and apprehension: your military operations I leave to more capable judges. If, therefore, I had twenty ships of war in my disposition, I should not give one of them to Captain Landais.

M. Landais afterwards resided on Long Island and was for many successive years a petitioner to Congress for an indemnity for the part which he claimed of the prizes, taken by Commodore Jones's squadron.

With the expectation of aid from this man, to whom the proper signal had been made, and, as usual, disregarded, the Bon homme Richard bore down within pistol shot of the *Serapis*, and answered her hail with a broadside. This was at 7 o'clock on the evening of the 23d of September, 1779. Jones immediately closed with the enemy, and in order to prevent the advantage which he would derive from superior manœuvring, his ship being much the most manageable, made the two frigates fast together. Two out of his six eighteen pounders burst at the first fire, and killed almost all the men who were stationed to manage them. The prisoners, of whom there were two or three hundred on board, being the officers and crews of the prizes which had been captured and sent in, were liberated by the master at arms, from an idea that the Bon homme Richard would soon sink and the prisoners be drowned. The side of the Bon homme Richard was so beat in, that some of the people, thus set at liberty, crawled through and got on board of the enemy, informing him that the Bon homme Richard was on the point of sinking. To cap the climax of folly and misfortune, three of Jones's officers called for the enemy just as the enemy himself was going to

call for quarters. "The English Commodore asked Jones if he demanded quarters, and was answered in the most determined negative." The fight had now continued two hours, when at last Capt. Landais approached with the Alliance. The reader shall have the rest in Com. Jones's own words, for no one can give it better or more briefly.

All this time the Bon homme Richard had sustained the action alone, and the enemy, though much superior in force, would have been very glad to have got clear, as appears by their own acknowledgments, and by their having let go an anchor the instant that I laid them on board, by which means they would have escaped had I not made them well fast to the Bon homme Richard.

At last, at half past 9 o'clock, the Alliance appeared, and I now thought the battle at an end; but, to my utter astonishment, he discharged a broad side full into the stern of the Bon homme Richard. We called to him for God's sake to forbear firing into the Bon homme Richard; yet he passed along the off side of the ship and continued firing. There was no possibility of his mistaking the enemy's ship for the Bon homme Richard, there being the most essential difference in their appearance and construction; besides, it was then full moon light, and the sides of the Bon homme Richard were all black, while the sides of the prizes were yellow; yet for the greater security, I showed the signal of our reconnoissance, by putting out three lanthorns, one at the head, (bow,) another at the stern, (quarter,) and the third in the middle, in a horizontal line. Every tongue cried that he was firing into the wrong ship, but nothing availed; he passed round, firing into the Bon homme Richard's head, stern, and broadside, and by one of his vollies killed several of my best men, and mortally wounded a good officer on the forecastle. My situation was really deplorable. The Bon homme Richard received various shot under water from the Alliance; the leak gained on the pumps, and the fire increased much on board both ships. Some officers persuaded me to strike, of whose courage and good sense I entertain a high opinion. My treacherous master-at-arms let loose all my prisoners without my knowledge, and my prospect became gloomy indeed. I would not, however, give up the point. The enemy's mainmast began to shake, their firing decreased, ours rather increased, and the British colours were struck at half an hour past 10 o'clock.

Our readers will recollect that the Bon homme Richard did not survive this victory long enough to arrive in port, where her commander was very anxious to exhibit her; but sunk some hours after the engagement, going down like the orb of day in the fulness of her glory. She was called *Bon homme Richard*, (*Poor Richard*,) in compliment to Dr Franklin, and in memory of a signal benefit conferred by his writings. The anecdote deserves to be known and remembered.—Soon after the capture of the Drake, Capt. Jones was invited by the French government, and permitted by that of the United States, to remain in France for the purpose of taking the com-

mand of a squadron which it was proposed to fit out there. After successive disappointments and delays, and a long and unprofitable correspondence, when his active and impatient spirit was almost in despair, he met with the maxims of Poor Richard by Dr Franklin, and among them this one, "If you wish to have your business done quick and well, *go yourself;* if you would have it neglected or done ill, *send.*" He was so struck with it that he set off instantly for the Court, and soon had his squadron equipped for sea. In remembrance of this, to pay, as he himself said, "a well merited compliment to a great and good man, he asked and obtained leave of M. De Sartine to change the name of his flag ship from the "Dumas," to the "Bon homme Richard."

Having made the above extracts to show that the Chevalier excelled ordinary commanders as much in describing, as he did in fighting a battle, we will proceed to state some of our objections to receiving this book as the "Life &c." of John Paul Jones. Our general objection is, that it is not his biography, but his correspondence, naval plans and projects, interspersed with acts and resolutions of Congress, and orders of the marine committee in relation to those plans or to their author, and sometimes to the navy in general. These are valuable as materials for naval biography or history, and some of them might properly go into an appendix, but are too diffuse or too irrelevant to be admitted into the text. The arrangement of the documents is bad. Chronological order is constantly violated; and therefore a great many things prematurely brought forward are unintelligible, and remain so, till we arrive, after some hours of suspense, at a letter or other paper which ought to have preceded and prepared us for that which we did not understand.

The compiler, or rather the editor, appears also to have been deficient in materials. There are several chasms in the life of the Chevalier, which ought to have been, and we presume might have been, filled up. His character was sufficiently remarkable to make every circumstance of his education and habits interesting. But we have none of the particulars of his childhood, scarcely any of his youth, or even of his manhood, till the age of thirty. What is told of his childhood is different from the general account, and from the one which he gave himself, as we shall pretty soon show. Had Jones lived till this time, he would have been 77 years of age. Undoubtedly there are persons living both in Scotland

and the West Indies, who would give every necessary particular of his history, while he was among them. We regret the more, that Mr Sherburne did not resort to these living sources of information to supply the chasms in the life of this hero; because they are sources which must soon fail.

We have the following facts from an authentic source, and we believe them, rather than the parallel part of the work under consideration, both from the character of the narrator and from their agreement with the generally received account. Mr Sherburne says, that neither Jones nor his father had any connexion with Lord Selkirk. A gentleman who was a fellow lodger with the Chevalier at Paris, had it from himself, that his father *was* the gardener of Lord Selkirk; that he was for a time brought up to the same business; that the old Duke of Queensberry, who was an occasional visitor at Lord Selkirk's, noticed him, and sometimes in taking his walks in the garden, patted him on the head, and told his father that he would do for something better; and that the Duke subsequently procured him a midshipman's warrant and placed him in the royal navy. This statement certainly derives confirmation, if any were wanted, from Capt. Jones's correspondence with the marine committee of Congress at the commencement of the revolution, in which he shows a familiarity with his profession, and refers to his "intimacy with officers of note in the British navy." It is observed that he had "a good English education." It is evident from his writings that he had not only a good, but a very excellent English education; nor was it merely English. He became so perfect in French, that the gentleman, to whom we have before alluded, used to go to him when they lived in the same hotel, to correct his notes and letters written in that language. These particulars, trifling as they are, derive importance from the celebrity of the man, and the scantiness of our information respecting his education and early history.

For the capture of the Serapis Com. Jones was decorated by Louis XVI. with the cross of the "order of military merit," and for his successes in the Black sea, in the service of the Semiramis of the north, he was complimented with the order of St Anne. He died at Paris of a dropsy in the chest on the 12th of Sept. 1792, at the premature age of forty-five. He bequeathed a moderate fortune to his two sisters and their children residing in Scotland.

We will close this article with the following letter from the gentleman already alluded to. It is worthy of entire confidence.

'DEAR SIR,

'I have gone through "The Life and Character of John Paul Jones," by Mr Sherburne, which you kindly sent to me. It appears to be as correctly given, as the materials, from which it is selected, and the time which has elapsed since the circumstances occurred, would permit.—If my memory is faithful, Com. Jones told me soon after his return from Russia, that his parents were in obscure situations, that by accident he was known to the old late Duke of Queensberry, who introduced him in early life to a commander in the British navy; that he was placed on board a British man of war, as *acting midshipman*, where he continued sometime, how long I do not remember, but long enough to perceive that family interest had more influence than personal merit. His juniors were promoted while he remained unnoticed; this determined him to enter the merchant service, where he continued until about two years before our revolution commenced; so that at the time he engaged in our service, he stood in the same position in regard to England with every native American. All were considered by Britain, as British subjects, until our own declaration of Independence, or, as Englishmen chose to think, until the peace of 1783. The appellation of Pirate or Renegade, therefore, was no more applicable to him than to those who were born in America before the battle of Lexington. All our writers allow, that success gives a better title than that of Rebels. A recurrence to the correspondence of Lieut. Jones, in 1775, with the Hon. Mr Hewes, I think will fully prove that he had previously received some education in the profession in which he so eminently distinguished himself during our revolutionary war.

'The circumstances attending his capture of the Drake appear to be nearly as he related them to me; and the description of the affair with the Serapis, as far as it goes, appears to be correct. When fitting out the Bon homme Richard, every exertion was required to find men of any and every nation, not interdicted by the laws of France. The result was, that he procured about 75 men, who were, or called themselves, Americans, and about 230 from all the nations of the earth. He then came to a stand with about 200 men short of a necessary complement; and the only expedient left, was to address Mons. de Sartine (through Dr Franklin) for permission to recruit from the prisons, where English sailors were confined. It was granted, and he soon obtained a sufficient number to enable him to sail with about 500 men, of this motley description. The various captures he made before

he encountered the Serapis, necessarily drew from his ship some officers, and some of the small proportion of his crew, in whom he placed confidence, to man the prizes. And he, moreover, had received nearly 200 prisoners on board his own ship. Thus situated, with at least 400 British subjects on board the Bon homme Richard, who had rather have blown Paul Jones out of water, than the Serapis, he attacked and grappled that ship, under such circumstances that neither of them could be disengaged until the termination of the battle. Before the close of it, the master-at-arms, against Jones's positive orders, released all the prisoners from their irons, and they went upon deck at one of the most critical moments of the action. The Bon homme Richard's side next the enemy was entirely beat in; so that the prisoners could pass into the Serapis without difficulty. Paul Jones took a stand upon an arm chest on the quarter deck, at the commencement of the battle, which he did not quit until the end of it. Therefore he could not tell whether the prisoners went on board the Serapis to assist Capt. Peirson, or remained an incumbrance on board the Bon homme Richard. He rather supposed that a part of them did both, but it being night, it was difficult to ascertain the fact. Paul Jones told me that this was the only moment in which he felt alarmed for the event of the contest. During the battle he received one small wound, which he said "was not worth mentioning," and he found a hole in the skirt of his coat which appeared to have been made by a musket ball. Upon a view of the crews of the Bon homme Richard at the time she sailed from France, the captures he made before the attack upon the Serapis, and the surviving crew of that ship, it is pretty evident, that the commodore, from the time the Bon homme Richard sunk, until he anchored in the Texel with the Serapis, must have had six or seven hundred English subjects on board. And after deducting from his original stock of Americans those that were necessary to man the prizes he had taken, and the killed and wounded in the action with the Serapis, it is probable he had not more than about forty Americans on board to participate with him the shouts of joy which was expressed by almost all Europe. Upon his arrival in Holland, almost every man and child in that country rushed into the streets, singing *Paul Jones the Conqueror!* Thus much from the frequent conversation I had with the Commodore at the Hague and Amsterdam a few years after the battle.

'I have been surprised at the English story of Paul Jones's fears of being intercepted by English ships, or of appearing himself in England after the peace; as I perfectly well remember, and I think it was about the year '86 or '87, meeting Com. Jones in Cranbourne Alley, Leicester Square, one of the most frequented places in London, by all ranks, from prince to beggar. I sa-

luted him, we walked some time together, we then entered a large boot shop; he bought a pair of boots, and desired the master to send them to his lodgings, at the same time giving his address thus; "Capt. Jones, Asburn's Hotel, Adelphi Buildings."—I have been particular in the last article, as proof that I was not mistaken in the man.'

Remarks on the Disorders of Literary Men, or an Inquiry into the Means of preventing the Evils usually incident to Sedentary and Studious Habits. Boston. 1825. 12mo. pp. 92.

THE design of this work is good, but we doubt whether the execution is such as to make it very useful or popular. The style is too diffuse and wandering, and there is too much of that

"Which squires call potter and which men call prose,"

to permit its being an attractive work to those, for whose use it is designed. Moreover the author is too apt to forget, in his recommendations, some of the circumstances of the case. This is not an uncommon fault with professional men; who occasionally give advice, which a little reflection might teach them will never be followed, and which is therefore useless. In like manner our author informs literary men, that

"They should select a place of residence which is elevated, and exposed to free currents on as many sides as possible. If there must be one side closed up, let it be that which faces the east;—but it is little less than suicide, for an individual whose pursuits are sedentary, to select an habitation in the very midst of a city." * * * * * * *

And again, that

"Their walks should not be through the confined streets of a busy metropolis, but on the banks of deep rivers, or the borders of the ocean—where there is not only a refreshing coolness and invigorating purity in the atmosphere, but where there is some beautiful fall or craggy shore—some strand whose bosom is alternately bathed and bared by the foaming and the refluent waves,—or some distant and romantic scene which engages the imagination and elevates the soul, and thus diffuses over the whole frame an agreeable excitement, which contributes at the same time to its developement and its strength. The neighbourhood of shallow rivers, which are often dry, and the banks of which are

polluted by decaying animal matter, are to be as studiously avoided, as those which are deep and pure are to be frequented.

He advises the student

"to follow the advice of Marcus Antoninius, who has said,—'When you would recreate yourself, reflect on the laudable qualities of your acquaintance.' This agreeable occupation exhilarates, at the same time that it gently exercises both the feelings and the mind."

This is all true enough indeed, but, for any use it will be to literary men, might as well have been confined to the author's own bosom; perhaps better, since it may excite in their minds sensations, not the most favourable to the success of such of his advice, as is really valuable.

The limits of this review will not permit us to examine the work in detail. We shall merely set down a few remarks which occurred to us on the perusal of it.

The first chapter gives "a General Sketch of the Manner in which the Disorders of Men of Letters are induced." These seem to be mainly, according to our author, intemperance in the use of food and the neglect of exercise. He does not notice one of great importance, the habit of studying at late hours. One remark indeed would seem to imply, that he does not consider this practice injurious. Now in our opinion, though the students of this country undoubtedly sin in both the first particulars, they are equally, if not more culpable in regard to the last; nor do we believe any point in *hygiene* better established than that of the danger of the midnight lamp.

On pages 16 and 17 we find the following remarks:

"It might be thought going too far to attribute to each portion of the brain its particular function, and to maintain that its developement is connected with that of a certain talent or propensity of the mind; though this doctrine can boast its powerful defenders and its rational defence. The growth of this organ usually accompanies the developement of the mind." * * * * *

"The eye is affected only by light, and the ear by sound. The brain, too, has its causes of excitement. The exercise of the mental powers determines the blood to this organ, and produces a temporary orgasm; and from analogy we may infer, that this exercise, become habitual, must be followed by the general developement of the organ, or the increase of those parts which correspond to the faculties called into exercise."

All this smells in our nostrils of craniology, one of the last systems, which we should have expected to find in this day and country treated with any respect in a book, which purports to be grave and rational. We should as soon think however of combating a disciple Mesmer or Cagliostro as a believer in Gall and Spurzheim. We would merely ask the author whether the growth of the thumb and finger, as well as that of the brain, does not accompany the developement of the mind, and whether the eye of the painter or the ear of the musician is any bigger than the corresponding ornaments to the heads of those of us who have as vague notions of chiaroscuro, as we have of the difference between a flat and a natural.

On page 23 we find the following assertion:

"Hæmoptysis and consumption, so direful in their effects, are principally caused, in literary men, by the vitious position of the chest in studying, and by fatigue from continued effort of the lungs."

We have usually supposed that the hæmoptyses and consumption, which sweep off so many both of the wise and foolish in England and America, were the result of tubercular affections of the lungs, and though these may unquestionably be brought into action by the causes abovementioned, they may and are excited by so many others, that we object decidedly to such inaccurate views of the case.

On the sixty-first page are the following observations:

"In hot weather, when the system is subjected to the relaxing influence of continued heat, a little brandy and water *with* dinner will be found salutary." * * * * * *

"A glass or two of good old Sherry, Madeira, or Port, is an agreeable and salutary stimulus to the digestive function when taken *after* dinner."

We deny both positions. We utterly deny that Brandy, Madeira, Sherry, Port, or any vinous or alcoholic liquor whatever, is ever necessary to those who are already in good health, or who have not eaten more food, than their stomach can or ought to digest, without such artificial aid. And we believe that students are the last persons, and *hot weather* the last time, for the use of either. We consider the whole of this doctrine as a Brunonian abomination, and one that needs any thing but encouragement in this country, the more is the pity that it should be so.

To the observation, a few pages farther, that "an apple perhaps, or some such light supper, would not be injurious," we shall only oppose the extract from the "wisdom of ages," which teaches, that "Fruit is gold in the morning, silver at noon, and lead at night," and which our individual experience has amply confirmed.

After thus remarking upon the parts of this little volume which we consider objectionable, it is but justice to the author to observe on the other hand, that there is much in it that is true and useful; that there are some judicious physiological remarks and agreeable illustrations, much good advice, that ought to be followed by literary men, and much more, probably, than will be so followed. We fear, to tell the truth, that many of this class cannot plead ignorance of the right way, in this matter, as an excuse for keeping the wrong. We believe that they do not, any more than the rest of the world, act up to the light which they have, and that they need neither ghost nor doctor to tell them, that they eat too much, drink too much, exercise too little, and work that in darkness which ought to be done in the light, and what is more, that they know they shall suffer for it. But the general propensity of the land has nurtured in every class of society habits of self-indulgence, against the encroachments of which maxims are feeble barriers. Literary men in other countries have sacrificed the good things of the body for the good things of the mind; used the temperance and exercise which necessity enjoined, and been healthy often because they could not avoid it. But few of our American literati are likely at present to acquire a name, like one of the ancient, from the breadth of their shoulders, or discover, like another, that whole nights have been rainy.

MISCELLANY.

THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

III. UTILITY, VALUE, AND PRICE.

Things may possess utility; but unless they are objects of exchange, they have no value.

The value of things arises from exchange; and the value of any particular article is estimated by the quantities of other articles at large, which it will purchase.

The price of an article is its value estimated in money, or the quantity of money it will command.

It is by price, which denotes the value of things in relation to money, that we compare the money-value of one thing with another, and thus determine the relative value of each.

Practically, there is only this kind of value, and this kind of price, known in the estimation of things. Commodities are exchanged for each other at their relative values, and they are exchanged for money at their actual prices.

To the possessor, the utility of an article depends upon his own use of it, and its value and price depend upon the want which others may have for it, and what they are willing to give for it.

Between want and supply arises demand, and according as want or supply may predominate, demand will increase or diminish, and the value of things rise or fall proportionately.

Wants multiply with the means of satisfying them; wherefore, in the general increase of commodities, which supply these means, the demand for any one kind, which may remain stationary, will be augmented, and the value of it consequently enhanced.

The variations in the demand for consumable commodities are according as the present and prospective production may exceed, or fall short of the quantities required for the supply of the present and prospective consumption.

And the variations in the demand for things of an unconsumable nature, as land, houses, money, &c. are according as the quantities, which come into the market, may exceed or fall short of their present and prospective uses.

The value and price of a commodity rise or fall with demand, which will be, as before observed, according as the quantities of other commodities, including money, increase or diminish, while the quantity of this commodity remains unchanged.

If the quantity of money be increased, while the quantities of all other commodities remain stationary, more money must be given in exchange for each of them. In this case, the demand for money is reduced, while the demand for every other commodity is augmented. In other words, money is of less value, and all other commodities of greater.

If the quantity of wheat be increased, while that of all other commodities remains the same, more wheat must be given in exchange for each of them; that is, wheat is reduced both in value and price, while all other commodities are augmented in value, though not in price: for the proportion between the quantities of these and of money remains unchanged. If in consequence of a short crop of grain throughout the country the price of it should be doubled, the value of all other articles in relation to grain will

be diminished one half. That is, twice as much of every thing must be given in exchange for grain. So far, the national wealth remains the same in value. What the consumer loses by the enhancement of the price, the producer gains. But should the nation import grain from abroad to supply the deficiency for necessary consumption, as much in amount as the quantity imported costs, so much in amount will the general wealth be reduced by the deficiency of the harvest.

In proportion to the aggregate increase of production may any single product be increased, without any diminution of its demand or its value.

And in proportion as products are multiplied and accumulated, so will the value of lands, buildings, and all other objects of which the quantity is fixed or stationary, be increased.

Public measures, therefore, which, by protecting industry, lead to a multiplication of its products, and thereby to an augmentation of the general circulating capital, are measures which, in doing this, do as a consequence cause an augmentation of the income, and with that an increase of the value, of all real estate.

IV. DISTINCTION BETWEEN WEALTH AND VALUE.

Wealth is positive, value is relative. Wealth as distinguished from value, consists in the positive quantities of material objects of necessity or desire, which have exchangeable value, or which possess utility conferred by labor, without exchangeable value. Value consists only in the relative quantities of things, and of those only which are objects of exchange.

If the quantities of all objects having exchangeable value be diminished in equal proportions, wealth, so far as it consists in these objects, would be diminished thereby in the average proportion; but the exchangeable value of each object would remain the same and undiminished; for each object would still command the same quantity of every other object, that it did before the proportionate diminution.

The aggregate, however, of the diminished quantities of these objects would not support the same quantity of labor, or the same number of individuals as before; and in either circumstance the diminution of wealth plainly appears.

V. METALLIC MONEY.

Money is chiefly of gold and silver. It is in coin circulating by tale, or in mass circulating by weight.

It is introduced by foreign commerce, in exchange for the products of native industry.

It is one of the constituents of wealth, and is its universal representative. Like wealth, it gives its possessor, in all places within

the sphere of civilization, a command of all objects of necessity or enjoyment, which are of an exchangeable nature. It is, by the common consent of nations, the medium through which one thing is exchanged for another, and the standard by which the relative values of things in exchange are measured.

Less money is required to facilitate the exchange of commodities when their circulation is rapid, than when it is slow.

The variations in the value of money are caused by the greater or less demand there may be for it compared with the supply.

The value of money is greater in proportion as the actual supply is less than the present demand; and its value is less, in proportion as the actual supply of it is greater than the present demand.

The increase of money, if it be employed to promote industry is beneficial; it increases property. But if it merely beget speculation and augment expenditure, it is injurious; it diminishes property.

The interest of money, while it is held on hand, being lost, people will not hold a greater quantity by them, than what their occasions require. More than this, therefore, will not be retained in circulation; and any surplus, which may arise, will from time to time go off to the public benefit by its employment in foreign commerce.

To prohibit by law the exportation of money, increases its value in relation to the products of the country, which prohibits it; and diminishes its value in relation to all imported commodities. In other words, it causes native products to fall in price, and foreign commodities to rise in price.

The foreign commodities will rise in price, in consequence of the hazard and expense incurred in getting out of the country the money which may be given in payment for them; and the native products will fall, in consequence of the increasing scarcity of money caused by its constant departure; for in spite of the law to prevent it, it will find its way out, to seek for more profitable employment in countries where it has more extensive uses, and from which it will not be likely to return again.

Money will never leave countries, where its employment is free and unlimited, to take up its abode in those, where its movements are limited, and its employment restricted.

The effect of this prohibiton, therefore, seems to be to produce a scarcity of money, to lower the price of native products, and as a consequence of this, to check the progress of industry and wealth.

VI. BANK CURRENCY.

Bank Paper is used as a substitute for metallic money. It car-

ries with it a bank promise to pay on demand the sum of money which it represents, and while this promise is observed with good faith, it performs all the functions of metallic currency.

The banks issue their notes by loans on interest; and as the more they issue the greater their profit, they are tempted to loan out more than circulation can retain. They soon learn however, by experience, what quantity they can keep out without its return for specie. But if nevertheless, greedy of gain, they issue more than they can redeem, and suspend payment, they commit a deliberate fraud upon the holders of their paper, to the amount of the depreciation which will consequently take place.

A legislative check to banks discounting on their own stocks would render them more safe, as well to a portion of the stockholders as to the community at large, and tend to prevent the unnecessary multiplication of them.

Most of the losses, which the public have sustained from bank failures, have been owing to the means, which discounting on their own stocks have afforded to speculating and unprincipled individuals to obtain their direction.

And the needless multiplication of banks is also owing to the facility, with which, by this kind of discount, they can be got up, with the advance of little or no capital.

The increase of banks, when the supply of their paper is already equal to the demand, is a loss to the community, in as far as it is an increase of expenditure, without any increase of utility.

The banks cannot together force into circulation over a limited amount of their bills; and for this reason, that, as there is a loss of interest on all money kept on hand, people will not keep more by them than their immediate occasions require, and the surplus there may be will consequently be returned to the banks for specie.

When one bank forces more than its proportion of bills into circulation, it is by crowding out in the same proportion the bills of other banks.

When a bank at one place is established with the capital of another place, the money, as it is loaned out, goes off in exchange for commodities which come in, or for things already there, but owned or owed for elsewhere; and, after a short period, the amount retained in circulation will be about the same as it was before.

In as far as the multiplication of banks has a tendency to increase expenditure without in a corresponding degree increasing industry, it leads to great embarrassment, as has been the case throughout the interior of the Union.

When banks, however, are controlled by judicious checks, the use of their paper is a saving to the community, to the amount of

the interest of the metallic money, which it releases from circulation, and which, being then set at liberty, goes to increase the capital employed in foreign commerce.

H. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

SONNET.

O! thou sole-sitting Spirit of Loneliness,
Whose haunt is by the wild and dropping caves;
Thou, of the musing eye and scattered tress,
I meet thee with a passionate joy, no less
Than when the mariner, from off his waves,
Catches the glimpses of a far blue shore—
He thinks the danger of his voyage o'er,
And pressing all his canvass, steers to land,
With a glad bosom and a ready hand.
So I would hie me to thy desolate shade,
And seat myself in some deep-sheltered nook,
And never breathe a wish [illegible] to look
On the tossed world, but rat[illegible]stless laid
Pore on the bubbles of the passing brook.

P.

MOUNT WASHINGTON,

The loftiest peak of the White Mountains, N. H.

Mount of the clouds! on whose Olympian height
The tall rocks brighten in the ether air,
And spirits from the skies come down at night,
To chant immortal songs to Freedom there!
Thine is the rock of other regions; where
The world of life which blooms so far below
Sweeps a wide waste: no gladdening scenes appear,
Save where with silvery flash the waters flow
Beneath the far off mountain, distant, calm, and slow.

Thine is the summit where the clouds repose,
Or eddying wildly round thy cliffs are borne;
When Tempest mounts his rushing car, and throws
His billowy mist amid the thunder's home!
Far down the deep ravines the whirlwinds come,
And bow the forests as they sweep along;
While roaring deeply from their rocky womb
The storms come forth—and hurrying darkly on,
Amid the echoing peaks the revelry prolong!

And when the tumult of the air is fled,
And quenched in silence all the tempest flame,

There come the dim forms of the mighty dead,
Around the steep which bears the hero's name.
The stars look down upon them—and the same
Pale orb that glistens o'er his distant grave,
Gleams on the summit that enshrines his fame,
And lights the cold tear of the glorious brave—
The richest, purest tear, that memory ever gave!

Mount of the clouds! when winter round thee throws
The hoary mantle of the dying year,
Sublime amid thy canopy of snows,
Thy towers in bright magnificence appear!
'T is then we view thee with a chilling fear,
Till summer robes thee in her tints of blue;
When lo! in softened grandeur, far, yet clear,
Thy battlements stand clothed in Heaven's own hue,
To swell as Freedom's home on man's unbounded view!

G. M.

A MAIDEN'S SONG OVER THE GRAVE OF HER LOVER.

Aye, flowers may glow
In new born beauty, and the rosy spring
To deck the earth its sparkling wreaths may bring,
But where art thou?

The early bloom
Of flowers in freshest infancy I wreathe,
Their transient life of fragrancy to breathe
Upon thy tomb.

And I have sought
The lowly violet, that in shade appears,
Shrinking from view like young love's tender fears.
With sweetness fraught;

And rosebuds too,
Crimson as young Aurora's blush, or white
As woman's cheek when touched by sorrow's blight,
O'er thee I strew;

And flowers, that close
Their buds beneath the sun, but pure and pale
Ope their sweet blossoms 'neath the dewy veil,
That evening throws.

The fragrant leaves
Of the white lily too with these I twine—
The drooping lily—that seems born to shine
Where true love grieves.

There will be none
To deck thy grave with flowers, and chant for thee
These snatches of remembered melody,
When I am gone.

But thou shalt have
A gift more precious than the buds I fling—
A broken heart!—my latest offering
Upon thy grave.

IANTHE.

MOZART'S REQUIEM.

The tongue of the vigilant clock tolled one,
In a deep and hollow tone;
The shrouded moon looked out upon
A cold, dank region, more cheerless and dun,
By her lurid light that shone.

Mozart now rose from a restless bed,
And his heart was sick with care;
Though long had he wooingly sought to wed
Sweet Sleep, 't was in vain, for the coy maid fled
Though he followed her everywhere.

He knelt to the God of his worship then,
And breathed a fervent prayer;
'T was balm to his soul, and he rose again
With a strengthened spirit, but started, when
He marked a stranger there!

He was tall, this stranger who gazed on him,
Wrapped high in a sable shroud;
His cheek was pale and his eye was dim,
And the melodist trembled in every limb,
The while his heart beat loud.

"Mozart!—there is one whose errand I bear,
"Who cannot be known to thee;
"He grieves for a friend and would have thee prepare
"A Requiem, blending a mournful air
"With the sweetest melody!"

"I'll furnish the Requiem then," he cried,
"When this moon has waned away!"
The stranger bowed, yet no word replied,
But fled like the shade on a mountain's side,
When the sunlight hides its ray.

Mozart grew pale when the vision fled,
And his heart beat high with fear;
He knew 't was a messenger sent from the dead,
To warn him, that soon he must make his bed
In the dark, chill sepulchre.

He knew that the days of his life were told,
And his breast grew faint within;
The blood through his bosom crept slowly and cold,
And his lamp of life could barely hold
The flame that was flickering.

Yet he went to his task with a cheerful zeal,
While his days and nights were one;
He spoke not, he moved not, but only to kneel
With the holy prayer—"Oh God! I feel,
'Tis best thy will be done!"

He gazed on his loved one who cherished him well,
And weepingly hung o'er him:
"This music will chime with my funeral knell,
"And my spirit shall float, at the passing bell,
"On the notes of this Requiem!"

The cold moon waned—on that cheerless day,
The stranger appeared once more;
Mozart had finished his Requiem lay,
But e'er the last notes had died away,
His spirit had gone before!

R. D.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

1. An Oration delivered at Lancaster, Mass. in celebration of American Independence, July, 1825. By Joseph Willard. Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 24.
2. Charge of Judge Howe to the Grand Jury of Hampshire County, delivered at the late term of the Court of Common Pleas in that County. Published in the Hampshire Gazette. Northampton.

We have placed these titles at the head of a short article, for the purpose of bringing before our readers, in other words than our own, the subject to which the performances are more particularly devoted. The appropriation of means for the support of free schools is a subject of the last importance to the whole country; but it is one of peculiar interest to the inhabitants of Massachusetts at the present time. And no better evidence of the public interest and the direction of public opinion upon the subject, could be given them, than is to be found in the sentiments which are constantly coming in every possible form from gentlemen of the first respectability in different sections of the commonwealth; and on occasions, too, when topics are usually selected for discussion with reference to their immediate importance to the public welfare.

We have no design here to bestow praise upon Mr Willard's Oration, though it is both sensible and eloquent; for we have before said, that it is quite impossible for us to notice particularly even a few of the many excellent orations, which the press has this year sent forth. But his views of the importance and of the state of the free schools of Massachusetts seem to us so just, and are so well expressed withal, that we wish to have them more generally read and known, than they probably will be in their present form.

"Look over our country, and see what vast sums are annually raised in the old states, and the reservations of land that are made in the new states, for the purpose of education alone, whose blessings, free to all,

open to all, are brought to the fireside of the humblest individual. But even here there is room for improvement. I confine the remark to our own state. Are we as active in promoting the cause of education as our situation, the spirit of the age, and circumstances demand? How stand we in this respect compared with our fathers? Do we not far outstrip them in our regard for free schools, and the intellectual cultivation of the great body of the people? No; to our shame be it said, and repeated too, we are as far behind them in these things, as we are in advance of them in population and wealth, They built up schools, to use the language of the times, "to the end that learning may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers in church and commonwealth." And look for a moment at their situation; in a wilderness, to be subdued by the hard hand of toil; in poverty, surrounded by inveterate and treacherous foes; compelled, and that not unfrequently, togo forth to their daily labours, yea, to the worship of their God in the sanctuary, with arms in their hands to protect themselves, their wives, and their children. These men made better public provision for the diffusion of knowledge, according to their ability, than is enjoyed at the present day, excepting in a few of our largest towns. Massachusetts, a humble, poor, dependent colony in 1647, with an existence of but eighteen years, exerted herself more strenuously for the good cause, than Massachusetts, independent, powerful, and rich, in 1825.

"Let me not be misunderstood; I speak solely of our free schools. The liberality of individuals is great; they have expended, and will continue to expend, untold sums in colleges, academies, and private schools; and the beneficial results continually force themselves upon our notice. But the poor man's son who aspires to a finished education, is shut out from academies and private schools; he cannot go *there*, and, in the language of inspiration, "buy without money and without price." He seeks for the grammar schools, where genius, though clothed in rags, once found encouragement and instruction; where the streams once flowed, open to every one; but the doors are barred against him, against *all*, by the strong arm of the government. He is compelled to sit down in silence, and lament for the sad necessities that encircle him, or to trust to the charities of others, to be stung, it may be, to the very soul with the chill feeling of dependency. We would respect public authorities, we would reverence public opinion when fully, calmly, and fairly expressed. In this instance, as in most others, the Legislature followed the general voice, instead of directing it. It is we, the people, who have blinded our own eyes, by disregarding the law while it existed, or by loosely enforcing its injunctions; marring the simple and beautiful system projected by our ancestors in wisdom, and handed down to us with the sanction of almost two centuries, with the sanction also of distinguished benefits."

Judge Howe's charge is wholly devoted to the subject of popular education. He sketches some of the moral and political advantages to the country, which flow from the free schools; and points out some of the faults, which, he believes, exist in our present system—if system it can be called. The charge, we think, is all sensible, and calculated to awaken much attention to the subject, and to direct efforts for improvement to the proper points. We earnestly recommend the whole piece to the careful perusal of our readers; but can find room only for the following extract.

"Grammar schools were intended by our forefathers to aid young men in preparing for college, and to enable those who could not afford the expense of a regular classical education, to obtain a better one at home than our common schools would afford. Every town containing two hundred families, it was supposed, would need a school of this description, and the duty of providing it was accordingly imposed. That the greatest advantages might result from it, provision was made, that the school should be alike open to all, that it should be under the control of the selectmen, and that every child in the town, of the proper age and requisite qualifications, should be entitled to participate in its privileges. The spirit in which these provisions originated, is approved by all. It has been said, however, that these institutions were calculated only for the benefit of the rich, and that the poor derived little or no advantage from them. If this be so, it is a result, directly opposed to the views and intentions of those who framed the law. But can this opinion be correct? If more of the children of the wealthy are found in these schools, than of the poor, it ought to be recollected that the state has an equal interest in the education of all its youth—that the burden of supporting these institutions falls chiefly upon the rich—but above all, that the wealthy will find elsewhere the means of education for their children, while the poor will be left to grow up in a state of ignorance, and but poorly qualified to discharge the duties imposed upon them by the constitution of their country. Nor have the rich any occasion to complain of this, any more than of the other expenses of civil government. If the means of education are afforded to the poor as well as to them, the state of society is improved by it—the standard of public morals is elevated—a greater security is furnished to their wealth, and their taxes for the support of the poor are diminished, in proportion as the causes of pauperism are removed."

Gramatica completa de la Lengua Inglesa, para Uso de los Españoles; con un suplemento, que contiene las frases mas precisas para romper en una conversacion, formas de documentos comerciales, y descripciones de las Ciudades de Filadelfia y de Washington. Por Stephen M'L. Staples, A. M. Filadelfia. 1825. 12mo. pp. 276.

Since the South American states have achieved their independence, the intercourse between them and the United States and Europe, particularly England, has been vastly increased. As they advance in improvements and in the resources of free and independent nations, this intercourse will become more intimate, and all the political and commercial relations will spring up, which usually subsist between neighbouring nations having many common interests and common sympathies. This will render a knowledge of the Spanish language necessary for many in our own country; and a knowledge of the English language no less necessary for many in the states of South America. Several Grammars of the Spanish language have been already offered to the public. The Grammar of Mr Staples is the first we have seen of the English language, written in Spanish; and designed to aid those, who understand the latter language only, in the acquisition of a knowledge of the English. This design is a good one, and we think the work must be well adapted to the wants of many who are constantly arriving in our country, and whose first object of course is to acquire a

knowledge of our language. But it seems to us that a grammar of the English language, written principally in Spanish, must be much more wanted in South America than here.

The plan which Mr Staples has pursued, is nearly the same as the plan of the old standard English Grammars; except that he has illustrated, at considerable length and with a great variety of examples, the different shades of meaning given to the same word by the prefixes and affixes, in which our language so much abounds We wish Mr Staples all the success with his book which his efforts deserve; and believe that those who teach our language to Spaniards or South Americans by a grammar, will find this to answer every valuable purpose. But we have no faith in the utility of Grammars of any kind as a means of giving the elements of a knowledge of language. And we recommend to Mr Staples to select the easiest English book he can find, by which we mean the one that presents the fewest exceptions to the most general principles of our language, and to read the book into Spanish a few pages at a time for the benefit of his pupils; explaining to them every thing as he goes on, which may require explanation. As his pupils gain knowledge of our language, he may take books and passages of more difficult construction; and so on, till he has given an acquaintance with the general principles. And then he may proceed to exceptions and anomalies, with a rational hope, that his explanations will be to some good purpose. We throw out this hint to Mr Staples, and beg him to take it for what he thinks it is worth; but we assure him it is the result of some reflection upon the science, and some experience in the business, of teaching.

Scientific Dialogues, intended for the Instruction and Entertainment of Young People; in which the First Principles of Natural and Experimental Philosophy are fully explained. By the Rev. J Joyce. A new edition, 3 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia.

We avail ourselves of the opportunity afforded by the publication of a new American edition of this work, to recommend it to the notice of instructers and parents. We believe they will find it to be the best introduction to the study of natural philosophy, which has been offered to the American public. The form of dialogue, however, is not according to our taste. It loads the book with much unnecessary matter; and some of it, notwithstanding the effort to render it attractive, is, on the whole, rather repulsive. We might cite as instances of this, the numerous quotations of barbarous poetry, with which the volumes are thickly interspersed. We think it not worth while to torture the Muses to explain mathematics. But these faults it has in common with many of the popular books on the sciences, published within the last few years. The time is yet distinctly within our memory, when, even at the University, we were obliged to look for a few principles in Chemistry and Political Economy, among the useless and childish circumlocutions of a family dialogue, every lesson opening with a "good morning, my dear," and closing with a "good night." This language is very good, and very proper to be taught to children; but it is out of its place when it is found in books of science.

This defect, or rather mistake, in the form of text-books, is, in the

present instance, somewhat atoned for, by the clear method,—the happy illustrations —and the simple manner, in which some of the more difficult problems of the sciences are explained to the youthful mind. We have no hesitation in saying that we believe a pupil, who reads carefully these dialogues, will gather from them a better knowledge of the subjects which they embrace, than he would get by reading Enfield; unless he should happen to be blessed with a better teacher, than it falls to the lot of most pupils to find. We hardly need to add, that we regard Enfield as one of the most repulsive works, which is to be found on a catalogue of modern text-books. It has driven more students from the fascinating studies of Natural Philosophy and the Mixed Mathematics, than its worthy compiler could enumerate in a week. We hope the time is not far distant when it will be displaced by treatises on the several branches of natural philosophy, better adapted to the purposes of a schoolbook.

INTELLIGENCE.

NIEBUHR'S ROMAN HISTORY.

In a late number, we stated that an English translation of Baron Niebuhr's Roman History was about to be published in this country. We are now able to add, that the translation is by Professor Henry of South Carolina College, and that the first volume is in a state of great forwardness, and will be put to press immediately. The second will be published early in January.

NEW SOCIETY.

We quote the following paragraph from a French paper, as we find it in the London Literary Gazette.—

"A society is about to be formed at Paris of mutual literary Panegyrists, on a new plan. The object of the association is to assist those worthy persons, who would substitute intrigue for talent. The place of meeting is to be the garden of Luxemburg; and in order that the beneficial effects of the institution may be extended as much as possible, the number of members is to be unlimited. The only qualification necessary is to have written an epigram, a sonnet, or some of the articles of Lansberg's Almanack. From the moment of his admission every member is expected to trumpet forth in public the praises of his brethren. 'What genius!' 'What eloquence!' 'What enthusiasm!' such are to be the ordinary exclamations. By means of this happy scheme the unreflecting will be astonished, and the critical silenced. It is expected, that many branch societies will be established in the provinces."

ENGLISH EDITION OF THE LIFE OF J. P. JONES.

Mr Sherburne's book, which we have noticed at some length among our REVIEWS, is about to be published in London by Mr Murray, under the title of "Memoirs and Correspondence of Paul Jones, from the

original documents in possession of John Henry Sherburne, Register of the Navy of the United States." This we think is a much more appropriate title for the work than the one prefixed to the American Edition.

GERMAN NOVELISTS.

Mr Thomas Roscoe has in the press, in a series of 6 volumes, crown 8vo. with plates, "The German Novelists," from the earliest period down to the present time, comprising a selection from the most popular national traditions, from the tales, and from the more modern novels of the most distinguished living writers; accompanied with biographical and critical notices, and a historical view of the traditionary and romantic literature of Germany. Mr Roscoe has already published a similar collection of the Italian novelists.

EXPERIMENT IN THE INSTRUCTION OF THE POOR.

An interesting experiment is making at Lindfield in Sussex Co. England, regarding the instruction of the poor. Some benevolent individuals conceiving that the labour of children might be made to pay for their education, have united and built schoolrooms at the above place, of sufficient capacity for 200 boys and 200 girls. During one part of the day, from 9 till 12, the children are to be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. In the other part, from 2 to 5, the boys will be instructed, in classes, in agricultural labour when the weather permits, and in some of the most useful mechanical arts; while the girls will be employed in needlework, the duties of the household and dairy, making butter, netting, straw-plaiting, and in short, every species of domestic industry that will contribute to make them valuable servants.

At the commencement, the parents or friends of each child will pay threepence a week for its education; but the projectors of the undertaking are confident that experience will soon confirm their theory, that the produce of three hours' labour of each child per day, will pay the expenses of the establishment; in which case the weekly charge will altogether cease. The success of this experiment at Lindfield will be rapidly followed by similar attempts in other parts of the country.

SPECTACLE OF THE FRENCH CORONATION.

The managers of the rival theatres of Drury Lane and Covent Garden have, it seems, thought it worth while to get up at their respective houses, a pageant representing the coronation of Charles X. The moving cause of this absurdity was no doubt the great success which attended a similar representation of the ceremony at the coronation of George IV. These spectacles were got up at an immense expense, and appear to have wholly failed. The only Englishman who, it is presumed, could possibly feel any interest in the matter, must have been the Duke of Northumberland. He might very rationally (very rationally for him) feel a curiosity to witness with his own eyes a fac-simile of the figure which he made upon that celebrated occasion. We wonder it never occurred to these caterers for the public taste to bring out a representation of the Inauguration of the President of the United States. It might be done at a comparatively small expense, and would fill one house at least; and there is no knowing indeed, but that such a thing might take very well by way of contrast.

TIMES OF THE MOTIONS OF SOLAR SPOTS.

It is stated in the "Annals of Philosophy," that Mr Emmett has made many observations upon the motion of solar spots, all of which tend to disprove the opinion that they are hidden and in sight for equal times, and to support the observations of older astronomers, who state the times of appearance and disappearance to be different. Mr Emmett makes out the time during which they are visible to be 12d. 8h. 30m.; and that during which they are invisible to be nearly 15d. 3h. 30m. These nearly accord with the times mentioned by Kirchius, Stannyan, Cassini, &c. and he thinks that imperfection in the instruments, or inaccuracy in the mode of observation, cannot fairly be urged to account for the great difference between these and equal times.

THE BRITISH AND THE ASHANTEES.

The war between the British and the Ashantees is stated in the *Revue Encyclopédique* to be the consequence of a treaty, which the late English traveller, Bowdich, took upon himself to make with their king, without having any authority from the British government.

SEPULCHRE OF NAPOLEON.

The sepulchre of Napoleon has occasioned a discussion that has much occupied the attention of the British government and the East India Company. Mr Torbet (proprietor of the earth where repose the remains of the man who at one time grasped the empire of the world) specu lated that he should gain £300 or £400 a year, by imposing a tax on the curiosity of the numerous visitors of the spot. The authorities of the island attempted to do away with this degrading monopoly, when Mr Torbet demanded that the body should be exhumed, and placed elsewhere. The government put a stop to this scandalous proceeding, and ordered the East India Company to pay a sum of £500 to Mr Torbet, on condition that the body of Napoleon be suffered to remain in its present place of interment. This has been accepted; and the celebrated tomb may now be visited without charge.

HISTORY OF THE WARS BETWEEN CHRISTIANS AND MUSSULMANS.

Dr Müneh of Fribourg University, Switzerland, has published a history of all the wars between Christians and Mussulmans from the first appearance of these barbarians to the commencement of the revolution in Greece. The *Revue Encyclopédique* says, "This seems to be an accurate, and certainly is a well-timed work."

POEMS ADDRESSED TO THE FRIENDS OF BRAZIL.

Senhor Saldvaha of Pernambuco, a gentleman of colour, who has studied with great reputation in the University of Coimbra, in Portugal, has published in that city a work, entitled "*Poemas offericidos aos Amigos do Brazil*," [Poems addressed to the Friends of Brazil.] Some of them are said to evince fine talents for lyric poetry. Senhor Saldvaha has since returned to Pernambuco, was Secretary of the provisional government there, and has been proscribed by the Emperor, and fled first to Philadelphia and afterwards to London.

RECOLLECTIONS OF MADAME CAMPAN.

An octavo volume containing recollections of the conversations of Madame Campan, and some original letters of the same lady, has been published at Paris by M. Maigne, physician to the hospital of Mantes. Those who have read the Memoirs of Madame Campan, and her work upon Education, of which we shall shortly make further mention, will receive this additional volume with pleasure.

SUBSTITUTE FOR THE TREAD-WHEEL.

The tread-wheels of England have been exchanged for *cranks*, which prisoners are compelled to turn. This exercise strengthens the arms, and the whole system, whereas experience has shown, that the tread-wheel debilitates it.

GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY IN PARIS.

Count Orloff, senator of the Russian Empire, was present, in November last, at a meeting of the "Geographical Society" in Paris, of which M. Chateaubriand is president, and M. Malte-Brun principal secretary. The Count made a donation to the society of 1000 fr. to be applied, in the manner they should judge best, to the encouragement of geographical discoveries. An anonymous benefactor afterwards added the same amount, and several others have presented smaller sums; all of which are offered as a premium to the first person who shall penetrate by the way of Senegal to the city of Timbuctoo, and who shall make and report, 1st, Exact observations on the situation of the city, the course of the neighbouring rivers, and the commerce of which this city is the centre;—and who shall, 2dly, obtain the most satisfactory information of the country between Timbuctoo and lake Tsaad, and also of the direction and height of the mountains, which form the basin of Soudan. At this meeting, a committee, at the head of which was M. Malte-Brun, reported the first volume of a Collection of all the voyages, narratives, and memoirs or dissertations hitherto published by the Society. We wish M. Chateaubriand and his associates success in *such* enterprises.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ASTRONOMY.

A Grammar of Astronomy, with Problems on the Globes; to which are added a Glossary of Terms and Questions for Examination; designed for the use of Schools and Academies. By J. Fowle. 18mo. pp. 174. New York. Gray & Bunce.

The author evidently understands the subject upon which he has written; and the publishers have sent out his work in a very creditable style. We state this last fact with the greater pleasure, because we are glad to bear testimony to the truth, that the style of printing schoolbooks is improving. The time was, and has not yet wholly passed, when many of the most widely circulated school books were printed upon paper hardly fit to wrap them in, and the mechanical execution was every way worthy of the paper. In

order to use such books, it is necessary that children should be as expert at reading, as experienced printers are in decyphering dark manuscripts. We are somewhat apprehensive that our author understands his subject better than he does the most philosophical method of teaching it; but of the plan of his work, and its adaptation to the purposes for which it was designed, we hope to speak a little more at length, when we have gained leisure to read it through more carefully.

EDUCATION.

Lights of Education, or Mr Hope and his Family, a Narrative for Young Persons. With a Vignette. Philadelphia. Ash & Mason.

LAW.

Harris and Johnson's Maryland Reports. Vol. V. 8vo.

MATHEMATICS.

Gummere's Surveying. A New and Improved Edition. Philadelphia. Kimber & Sharpless.

MEDICINE.

The American Medical Review, and Journal of Original and Selected Papers in Medicine and Surgery. Vol. II. No. I. Philadelphia. A. Sherman.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Remarks on "Gen. William Hull's Memoirs of the Campaign of the North Western Army, 1812." By Josiah Snelling, Colonel of the 5th U. S. Regiment of Infantry. 8vo. Detroit. 1825. Sheldon & Wells.

The author of this pamphlet is, we believe, a native of this city, and a brave and meritorious officer. He considers his character to be unjustly implicated by Gen. Hull in his "Memoirs;" and his object, in this publication, is to vindicate himself. He indulges in a great deal of recrimination and unnecessary personal abuse. The public and posterity want facts i they want any thing more upon this subject, and Col. Snelling has stated but few facts previously unknown. His pamphlet is, on the whole, boisterous and vindictive. From the specimens we have seen lately, we do not think that all the officers of our army excel as authors, and we are persuaded their country will derive much more glory from the achievements of their swords than of their pens.

NOVELS AND TALES.

The Orphans; an American Tale; addressed chiefly to the Young. 12mo. pp. 123. New York. E. Bliss & E. White.

This work has no great merit as a tale, but it contains a few good reflections upon the character and utility of the asylums in this country for orphan children. The author is evidently a person of pious, though somewhat gloomy feelings; and these feelings thoroughly pervade the book from beginning to end. He may explain his own objects. "The design, here, is to state important truths, in simplicity; with such reflections as appear to offer, in immediate connexion A more gay and pleasant subject may be sought by such as are fond of amusement and the attractions of wit. Far different is the purpose of this humble work. It is profitable to go sometimes to the house of mourning, to turn our thoughts to the vicissitudes and sorrows of human life, not as the subject of gloomy foreboding; but as a wholesome admonition of our dependence, and the obligations under which we are placed as rational, moral, and social beings." There are many inaccuracies in the use of language, which plainly betray the author's inexperience in writing.

Harriet and her Scholars; a Sabbath School Story, by the author of "Jane and her Teacher." With an elegantly engraved Frontispiece. 18mo. pp. 90. Philadelphia.

POLITICS.

A Register of Debates in Congress, comprising the Leading Debates and Incidents of the Second Session of the Eighteenth Congress; together with an Appendix, containing the most important State Papers and Public Documents to which the Session has given birth. To which are added, the Laws enacted during the Session; with a copious Index to the whole. Extra royal 8vo. pp. 512. Washington, D. C. Gales & Seaton.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Pocket Guide, for the Tourist and Traveller, along the Line of the Canals, and the Interior Commerce of the State of New York. Second edition, with Additions and Corrections. By Horatio Gates Spafford, LL. D. New York.

THEOLOGY.

The Week; or, the Practical Duties of the Fourth Commandment. Exhibited in a Series of Tracts, entitled the Last Day of the Week, the First Day of the Week,—and the Week completed. 18mo. pp. 275. New York. W. B. Gilley.

The author of this volume makes no very great demands upon the previous knowledge of his readers; or in other words, he adapts his thoughts and language to minds of a humble order and of very limited acquirements. He gives much excellent instruction in the form of narratives, which are generally interesting; though the style will not prove peculiarly attractive to all classes of the community.

The Precepts of Jesus, the Guide to Peace and Happiness. By Ram mohun Roy, of Calcutta. New York. B. Bates.

Advices and Meditations of the late William Haslett, Esq. consisting of an Address to the Clergy and Christians of all Denominations, with some Discriminating Marks of Grace, &c.; with a Biographical Sketch of the Author. Charleston, S. C. Price 75 cents.

Observations on the Religious Peculiarities of the Society of Friends. By Joseph John Gurney. Philadelphia. B. & T. Kite.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

Universal Geography. By M. Malte-Brun. No. VII. 8vo. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

An Exposition of the Natural System of the Nerves of the Human Body. By Charles Bell, Professor of Anatomy and Surgery to the Royal College of Surgeons. 8vo. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

William Tell; a Play in five acts, as performed at the Park Theatre. Written by James Sheridan Knowles, author of Virginius, &c. &c. New York. E. M. Murden.

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REVIEWS.

An Address delivered before the American Academy of Fine Arts. By WILLIAM BEACH LAWRENCE. New York. 1825. pp. 44.

[CONCLUDED.]

A taste for the fine arts was not entirely extinguished even at the darkest period of the middle age. They yet lingered, although in a corrupt state, at Constantinople, after they were driven out of Italy. And in Italy the invading Goths did less to obliterate the traces of ancient art than the Iconoclasts, the effects of whose blind rage tempt us to wish they had confined their bigotry, barbarism, and blows, to the heads of themselves and their opponents, instead of wreaking their fury upon the splendid monuments of Grecian sculpture and painting. Some of the noblest of the Roman edifices, however, such as the Pantheon, and the Flavian Coliseum, owe their preservation to their being dedicated as churches; and this, in part, atones for the mischief otherwise occasioned by misguided views of religion. But it is not a little remarkable, that, from the tenth to the thirteenth century, no part of Europe so munificently protected, or successfully cultivated, letters and arts as the Moorish kingdoms of Spain.

The remains of the grand mosque of Cordoba, and of the Alhambra and Generalife at Grenada, still attest the magnificence of the Spanish Arabs. And about the same period, the Gothic, or Norman style of architecture, with its pointed arches and clustered columns, flourished chiefly in the northern countries of Europe, and those picturesque buildings were

constructed, which, rude as they are, have strong claims on our approbation as models of ecclesiastical edifices. But the effectual restoration of the fine arts in Europe, was prepared, by a combination of causes, strikingly similar, and yet in one respect, strikingly unlike to those, which produced the original establishment of them in Greece.

It was not until the tenth century, that the municipalities of Italy began to emerge out of the night of barbarism, into activity and consequence. They were the old Roman State resolved, as it were, into its constituent elements. The principal maritime cities, becoming independent of each other and of any common head, animated by competition, inspired by freedom, entered first upon the career of commerce, to which their situation invited them; and amid numerous wars and civil commotions occasioned by their turbulent spirit, speedily accumulated wealth, and laid the foundations of their future glory. Here was, in political condition, a remarkable counterpart of the Greek republics. But the resemblance is carried further in the subservience of the fine arts in modern Italy as well as in Greece to the purposes of religion, and the influence of religion upon their re-establishment in Europe. The fathers of the Catholic church knew, equally well with the ancient priests, the advantage of religious forms capable of powerfully affecting the senses and the imagination. Hence the papal see and its subordinates early availed themselves of the art of painting and sculpture, but chiefly the former, in the decoration of their places of worship and in giving an imposing exterior to their ceremonies; supplying the want of pagan gods and their adventures, by a host of saints and fabulous legends of their lives. But as pious scruples interfered with the use of images in churches, painting was more encouraged than statuary, and thus gradually outstripped the noblest of the imitative arts. Therefore it was that modern taste acquired a turn the reverse of what it did in Greece; an event, which, for ourselves, we never can sufficiently deplore, considering, as we do, the chaste, durable, and majestic creations of sculpture more admirable far than the fugitive productions of the pencil, in which mediocrity is so easily attained, which are often gaudy combinations of meretricious colours, and which when most beautiful depend for all their beauty upon optical illusion.

When a taste for the polite arts began to revive in Italy, Greek artists were for some time employed to adorn the pri-

vate and public buildings of wealthy cities, such as Pisa, Venice, and Florence. And as Petrarca and Boccaccio, the restorers of classical learning, studied under Greek instructers; so likewise did Cimabue, the oldest of modern painters, and Nicolo Pisano, the first distinguished modern sculptor. These fathers of the art flourished in the latter part of the thirteenth century; and with them commenced the brilliant series of the great Italian masters.

Cimabue's merit consisted in his breaking free from the stiff and spiritless manner of his immediate teachers, and by the study of nature and of ancient monuments obtaining a purer and truer style. His works were looked upon as prodigies of art by his Florentine countrymen. His picture of the Madonna was carried in solemn procession from his house to the church of S. Maria Novella, by sound of trumpet, accompanied with enthusiastic rejoicings; and the street through which the procession passed has to this day borne the name of *borgo allegro*. Yet painting was still in its infancy; for Cimabue sometimes inserted labels in the mouths of his figures, as we now see them in low caricatures. His pupil, Giotto, the friend of Dante, made more striking improvement than Cimabue, gave a proper direction to the taste of his successors, and, by the excellence of his own productions, raised up numberless illustrious patrons and professors of the art. He received employment and honours from every quarter; and thenceforth the use of painting to give splendour to religion becoming an established taste, the art continued to advance with wonderful celerity.

Florence, it thus appears, took the lead in cultivating this art; and the patronage of the Medici, together with the establishment of the academy of St Luke, in process of time, created the first and greatest school of painting, which places the chief excellence in simplicity of design and purity of expression, the *grand style*, as it is named; which, founded by Giotto, and gradually improved by Masaccio, Lionardo da Vinci, and others, reached its highest perfection in Michel Agnolo and Raffaello. In the mean time another school of painting arose in Venice, beginning with Giorgione, and boasting of Tiziano, Tintoretto, and Paolo Veronese; in which purity and brilliancy of colouring and execution were the principal aim. A third school, which sought by the harmonious disposition of light and shade to produce the utmost elegance and grace of effect, was established at Parma by Correggio.

Those three original styles underwent many modifications, from the taste of various artists, of which it is unnecessary to mention more than one, the eclectic school, founded at Bologna by the three Caracci, who strove to combine the peculiar excellences of the Florentine, Venetian, and Lombard schools.

We confine our observations, for the sake of brevity and perspicuity, to painting, sculpture, and architecture, whose progress is amply sufficient to illustrate the progress of the minor arts of design. The advancement of sculpture and architecture in Italy, although less rapid than that of painting, for the causes which we have hinted at, was nevertheless by no means slow. To the fame of Nicolo Pisano in sculpture, succeeded Andrea Pisano, Giotto the painter, and afterwards Ghiberti, Donatello, and Brunelleschi, who wrought in wood, clay, metals, and marble; and they were followed by Michel Agnolo, a greater than all his immediate predecessors combined, since in him was united the highest excellence in all the sister arts. The first great genius in architecture, whom modern Italy produced, was Brunelleschi, born in 1377, who obtained distinction by raising the cupola of the cathedral church of S. Maria del Fiore at Florence. After him flourished Bramante, who conceived, but could not execute, the grand design of the dome of St Peter's, at Rome; and at length we arrive at the celebrated names of Raffaello, San Gallo, Michel Agnolo, Palladio, and Bernini, who gave permanent fame to this art in Italy. Of Michel Agnolo Buonaroti, whose life covers nearly a whole century, and represents the history of all the fine arts at the most glorious period of their modern splendour, of him who was for seventy years eminent as a poet, philosopher, painter, sculptor, and architect, hardly any terms of eulogy can be considered extravagant. The sublime and versatile genius of this extraordinary man, certainly goes far to justify the inscription of his countryman, Colpani:

> Giusta all' Italia invidia
> L' antica Grecia porti;
> Socrate, Apelle, e Fidia
> L' Italo suol vide in te sol risorti.

Having thus traced the re-establishment of the fine arts in modern times, it is not our purpose to follow their further spread in Italy, and from Italy all over the rest of Europe,

down to the present day, when the brilliant success of the English, or shall we not say American painters, has demonstrated that the fine arts are not inseparably wedded to their most genial soil, the sunny climes of Italy and Greece.

And to conclude, although we abstain, at the close of a long article, from entering upon the prolific question of what the destinies of our country are, yet we cannot forbear observing in how many obvious particulars our condition resembles the combination of circumstances, which attended the original perfection of the arts in Greece, and their restoration in modern Italy. One thing, however, ere we part, to men of timid minds, who doubt concerning the *expediency* of cultivating the fine arts in this country, as a question of political economy.

Giving the narrowest construction to *utility*, of which the word is susceptible, we apprehend it is demonstrable that the study of the ornamental arts is eminently useful to a nation. It might be shown to contribute to the national wealth, as well as to national honour, the encouragement of genius, and the laudable gratification of opulent individuals,—by the plainest considerations. It provides a new field for the exercise of labour, and thereby augments the productive industry of the nation. It cannot diminish the productive labour of any other branch of industry. In many countries, and nowhere more evidently than here, the number of hands employed in cultivation is much greater than is needed to produce the requisite amount of agricultural products demanded for domestic and foreign consumption. There being a surplus of labour devoted to agriculture, the creation of a new branch of productive industry would naturally draw labour away from that department, in which there is now an excess of it; and the whole value of the labour thus diverted into a new channel would be so much clear gain to the community.

The wealth expended on public or private buildings, on paintings, or on sculpture, is not lost nor consumed. It still remains in the country, being merely transferred from the rich to the ingenious, from the hands of those who have a surplus over their wants and over what they can profitably employ, to the hands of the industrious classes. A portion of it is fixed in a new object, in a beautiful statue or church, in a commodious house, or in an elegant picture; but nevertheless it still exists.

The employment of labour in the fine arts increases the demand, and with the demand, the value of the products of

other branches of industry. It creates a new class of men to be fed, and clothed, and supported in comfort; it calls marble and granite from the quarry; it causes the mine to be wrought for its metal; it demands a supply of colours, wood, and all the other various materials used in the ornamental arts.—Thus it gives, at once, occupation to additional labourers; it converts vegetable and mineral substances, of no value intrinsically, or at least of no value whilst in the earth or the forest, into profitable articles of trade; and it adds by the whole operation to the value of lands and to the aggregate of national wealth. Besides, surplus wealth will be expended by its holders, in the purchase of objects of taste and luxury, such as the fine arts produce. If those objects cannot be found at home, the money will depart into foreign lands, to discourage domestic industry, and encourage that of some rival nation.

And there is another point of view, wherein it is important to regard the subject. We have spoken thus far only of the supply of objects of the fine arts, and of a supply of them only for domestic consumption. The subject has vastly more extensive relations. It is estimated that, in England, of the students devoted to professional improvement in the fine arts, but one out of forty or fifty rises to the rank of a distinguished painter or sculptor. Not every aspirant after fame becomes a West, a Chantrey, an Allston, or a Newton. The hundreds of others, oftentimes men of genius too, who spend their lives in the practice of the fine arts, find more profitable employment for their talents in the manufactories of clay, glass, metals, cottons, and the like, than they would in the higher walks of the profession. These are the artists, who communicate that beauty of design and exquisite finish to the meanest as well as richest articles of British manufacture, by means of which, among other things, they have hitherto obtained a preference in all the markets of the world. Thinking men amongst us are beginning to perceive that the most advantageous investments of capital, so far as the interest of the nation is concerned, is in manufactures. It is for them to consider whether we can compete with Great Britain in foreign markets successfully and upon equal footing, before we have secured, not only a sufficient capital and the excellent machinery which we now possess, but also the same taste in giving finish and grace to our manufactured productions. And we hazard nothing in predicting the time to be close at hand,

when, with the blessing of heaven, the same country, which now produces artists of unequalled skill in the strictly useful and inventive arts, shall be not less fertile of ornamental and imitative genius.

Reform of Harvard College.

[Continued from page 18, Vol. III.]

11. *Remarks on Changes lately proposed or adopted in Harvard University.* By GEORGE TICKNOR, Smith Professor &c. Boston, 1825. 8vo. pp. 48.

SINCE the appearance of our last article on this subject, the pamphlet whose title we have just recited, has been published. It contains a general account of the causes of dissatisfaction with the state of things at Cambridge; an elaborate argument against the Memorial, on the grounds both of law and expediency; a history of the manner in which the proceedings originated and were pursued, that have resulted in the adoption of a revised code of laws at Cambridge; and an account of the principal features of this code.

As several former articles in this Gazette have been devoted to many of these topics, and we have made a commencement with the subject of the Memorial, we shall pass over the preceding portions of Mr Ticknor's pamphlet; and only take along with us, at present, that part of it, in which he contests the claim of the Memorial. The whole of Mr Ticknor's pamphlet is entitled to consideration, both for the source from which it proceeds and the manner in which it is executed. That part which treats of the subject of the Memorial is deserving of peculiar attention, being, as we have understood, drawn up with the assistance of the very full minutes of Judge Story's powerful speech during the debate of last winter, and presenting, accordingly, the fruits of the research and ingenuity of that eminent jurist. The appearance in so authentic a form of the most able argument against the Memorial has induced us, contrary to our original intention, to enter somewhat at length into the discussion.

It must be confessed, that all the advantage in this argument, from first to last, has been on the side opposed to the Memorial. It is well known to the profession, that no question is ripe for legal adjudication, that has not been solemnly argued by counsel learned in the law, on both sides. An in-

accuracy of form crept into the Memorial itself, of which the consequences clung to it in every stage. The Memorial professed to inquire, and did exclusively inquire, what a Fellow ought to be, *of right*, according to the charter of Harvard College; and, as we think, proved that the charter intended fellows to be resident instructers. In the close, however, of their statement, in the very last sentence, the memorialists, as resident instructers, put in the claim to be elected to vacancies in the Board of Fellows. Technically speaking, the error was fatal. Although the proof might be positive, that the charter required the fellows to reside, it was not proved, it had not been pretended by the memorialists, that residence was a condition precedent. The difference in substance was insignificant; in form and in law it was destructive. Mr Lowell, in his pamphlet against the Memorial, argued triumphantly against this *supposed* claim. Mr Everett, in his Reply, strongly and repeatedly disavowed that interpretation; and strove to fix the discussion on the pretensions really urged in the Memorial. In his rejoinder Mr Lowell speaks of his disavowal as a shifting of ground. The Report of the Committee alludes to it, as the act of one of the memorialists. Judge Story, in his speech, in making the same allusion, added, that "he was well informed the other memorialists still adhered to the claim of residence, as a condition precedent to election as a Fellow." Mr Everett accordingly, when authorized to appear in defence of the Memorial, again strongly disavowed this interpretation. Notwithstanding which, the Board of Overseers passed a resolution against this interpretation of the claim; and Mr Ticknor appears to revive it. As none of these gentlemen, and still less the body of Overseers, can be suspected of any intentional unfairness, the imprudence of the memorialists, in not causing their petition to be drafted by a lawyer, and the fatal effects of an error in the first concoction, are strongly illustrated. Considering the Board of Overseers as a paternal and visitatorial, not a judicial or parliamentary tribunal; and recollecting that the memorialists were some of them the oldest and most faithful instructers of the University, it might perhaps not have been a misplaced indulgence, to extend some statute of *jeofails* to their case; *non observatâ*, in the language of an ancient English statute, *illâ durâ consuetudine, Qui cadit a syllabâ cadit a totâ causâ.*

But there appears to have been another circumstance, creative of some confusion, as to the nature of the claim of the memorial; and in the result, decisive of its failure.

The memorialists speak of their claim, as a matter of "*chartered right.*" Fairly weighed, perhaps, in the context of the Memorial, these terms do not ill express the ground on which the memorialists meant to rest their pretensions. But they do not appear to have been aware, that, in considering a claim resting on a written document, there are always two questions; *the first*, What do the terms of the document, in legal obligation, convey? which is a question that the courts of law settle on their own principles: *the other*, What was the *intention* of the instrument? and this must be ascertained by very different rules of research and analogy. There is no kind of doubt, that the law aims to enforce the intention as a general object. There is as little doubt, that all instruments—some more and some less severely—are legally interpreted by certain technical rules and forms. Now it is very plain that, in the case in hand, the memorialists argued to the intention; and the Overseers, and the members of that body who opposed the Memorial, argued to the law. Nay, some of the arguments were such as went to prove, that although the charter had formally given the right to the memorialists, they do not now possess it. We allude to the argument, that the Constitution of the State, being a sovereign organic law, recognized the non-resident Fellows.

The object of the Memorial, as stated in the first sentence, is to show "the mode in which, *according to the charter* of the Institution, the Corporation ought, *of right*, to be constituted." If there be any difference, then, between a rightful and a legal claim (and who can deny it); if it be possible, that the charter can be proved to have intended what, nevertheless, it did not make legal provision to enforce; if silent encroachment, grown at length into prescription, have sanctioned a different construction, where so much depends on construction;* or if, finally, an instrument of sovereign power,

* In the debates on the subject of the College, in the Massachusetts Convention for Revising the Constitution, Mr Webster very justly observed, "That the original laws and charters were very short and imperfect, and that much was left to construction." This sentiment was quoted in the Memorial. Mr Lowell, in reply, p. 19. pronounced the College charter not to be one of those thus characterized by Mr Webster. This, however, is a mistake. The College charter is the very instrument of which Mr W. was speaking, and to which the remark is applied by him.

like the Constitution of the State, have put the seal upon all which it found in existence; and if, in consequence of any or all of these circumstances, the original *intention* of the charter cannot now be enforced on legal grounds,—while the question of law is settled against it, the question of right, according to the intention of the instrument, remains unaffected; and this is evidently the question which the memorialists discuss. They do indeed appear to have supposed—and who that has ever watched the progress of an important lawsuit could doubt it—that the purely legal question might bear an argument on both sides, could it be fairly brought into court, by counsel learned in the law. But they could not themselves undertake to discuss it on technical principles.

With these views, it is of course unnecessary to say much on the purely legal question. Considering the high legal character of the gentlemen who led in the discussion against the Memorial, it may be considered that this question is settled, as far as authority can do it. Law characters, whose opinions would be thought decisive on almost any point—who, some of them in stations far more important than that of an Overseer of the College, do pronounce, and in pronouncing, settle the law in questions closely concerning life, rights, and property, have settled that the claim of the Memorial has no legal foundation. Mr Justice Story particularly stated, that it was this proposition which he should attempt to establish; and he was followed, on the same side, by other gentlemen of the highest authority. Mr Ticknor observes, that the decision made in conformity with this authority, has been universally acceptable, particularly to the members of the profession of the law. We are not disposed to controvert it. It is true, we have never met with a single individual (beyond the parties to the discussion) either in the profession or out of it, who had read the documents and collected the arguments, sufficiently to understand, or to profess to understand, the whole of the case. But it is precisely under these circumstances, that the authority of learned and upright men ought to prevail. With this qualification, we do not profess a blind allegiance to authority, not even in the law. To allude to a case somewhat in point, the famous one of Phillips and Bury. By the authority of the three puisne judges, the law was settled against Chief Justice Holt. In this country, that decision would have been final, for want of

a higher Appellate Court. In England, it went to the House of Lords; the judgment of the court below was reversed, and that of the Chief Justice became, and remains, the rule of law relative to visitation.* In the recent history of Harvard College itself, we may learn that legal authority is not infallible. In 1810, an act was passed by the General Court, to alter the Constitution of the Overseers. That act is understood to have been drafted under the direction of the late Chief Justice Parsons, a lawyer of as great ability as ever lived in this, or perhaps any country. It was supposed, as it was designed by him, to put the College forever after beyond the reach of the legislative power of the Commonwealth, except so far as the same should be exercised by consent of the Corporation and Overseers. That such was the legal effect of this act is maintained in a document addressed by the Corporation to the General Court in 1812, evidently written by the Chief Justice, and equal (we are sure there is no disrespect in the remark) for legal acuteness and cogency of argument, to any thing which has been written or spoken against the Memorial. But the late Mr Dexter, not to name distinguished living counsel, thought otherwise; and this law, whose duration and power were to know no end, was repealed in two years. Again, we can quote the highest legal authorities to prove, severally, that the Corporation, the Overseers, and the General Court, are the visitors of the College. With respect to any single question, therefore, of the legal provisions of the charter, which had been legally argued only on one side, and where private pains were taken to interest the ablest law characters in the Board of Overseers on that side; we do not think a very loud proclamation of deference to authority necessary, to protect us from the charge of arrogance.

It is not, however, our design to say any more on this point. We consider the question as one of construction and of intention. The memorialists so treated it; and it is therefore in this form only that their argument ought to be considered. On the ground of construction and intention, the authority is stronger for, than against the Memorial. The Committee of both houses of the Provincial General Court, who, in 1722,

* Dr Brown, in his approved work, in the elaborate chapter on Corporations, reverses the facts; and states the opinion of the three judges, as the present rule of law.

pronounced that "it was the intent of the College charter, that the Tutors of said College, or such as have the instruction and government of the students, should be the Fellows and Members of the Corporation of the said College, provided they exceed not five in number,"—comprehended an amount of law character, as great as was arrayed against the Memorial last winter. In this opinion the Representatives and the Council concurred. This authority of lawyers in the highest judicial stations, living one hundred years nearer than we do to the date of the instrument on whose intent they decide, with records in their hands, now lost, is as strong as any thing can be. Nothing on the score of authority can, at the present day, be opposed to it.

An attempt is made, indeed, to weaken the effect of this authority, by saying it was pronounced *ex parte*. We intend, in the sequel, to place in a distinct light, the history of this affair of 1722 and 1723, when this allegation will be examined. We will now only say a word of the improbability *a priori*, that a Committee, containing more than a full bench of judges and justices, and those the most honoured names which the history of Massachusetts can produce, should have taken upon themselves to make a decision, which could fairly be called *ex parte*. A hearing is called, in the language of Mr Ticknor, a mere matter of "decent justice." Had Paul Dudley, had Edmund Quincy, had Chief Justice Lynde no sense of justice, none of decency? Will it be believed of men in that station, and of their characters? We trust not; and never, in fact, had a question been more thoroughly discussed, under all its forms, than this had been, before the Committee brought in that decision, which is now called *ex parte*, because the Corporation were not permitted to argue a fourth time, a question which they had argued three times before.

While, therefore, the opinions pronounced last winter by the highest law characters among us, go only to the legal provisions; law authorities as numerous and respectable, and a century nearer the date of the instrument which they explain, support the memorialists in their view of the intention of the charter. What, then, is this point as to the intention of the charter, and how is it made out?

The charter of 1650 provides, "that the College in Cambridge, in Middlesex, in New England, shall be a corporation consisting of seven persons, to wit, a President, *five fellows*,

and a treasurer or bursar; and that Henry Dunster shall be the first president; Samuel Mather, Samuel Danforth, Masters of Art, Jonathan Mitchell, Comfort Star, and Samuel Eaton, Bachelors of Arts, shall be the five fellows; and Thomas Danforth to be the present treasurer, all of them being inhabitants of the Bay, &c."

The Memorial pretends, that it was the intent of the Charter that these *five fellows* should be resident at the College, employed in instruction or government. It is stated in Mr Ticknor's pamphlet that the whole argument of the Memorial rests on the construction of this word. Though the construction of this word is an important part of the argument, we shall soon see, it is by no means the whole nor the major part of it.

The first consideration in support of this point is, that *fellow of a college* is a technical term, and according to a well known principle "terms of art, or technical terms, must be taken, according to the acceptation of the learned in each art, trade, and science." * As there was then no other college in America, and as it is a well known term in the English Colleges, in which some of our forefathers were educated, we look to them to find what a fellow technically is. The memorialists contended that fellows, as known in the English Colleges, resided in the walls, administered the government of the society, were employed (as many as were needed) in instruction, and received their support from the college funds. The chief authorities, which they quoted, were, the Statutes of Trinity, the chief college at Cambridge, of Jesus and New College, Oxford, and of Trinity College, Dublin; all of which prescribe the residence of fellows under severe restrictions; in all of which the government is administered by the Fellows or a part of them; in all of which the Fellows have their support from the funds, and furnish from their number the tutors who instruct. Our limits do not permit us to quote these Statutes. They were read by Mr Everett, in his defence, last winter, from manuscript copies of the Statutes of Trinity and Jesus; from the printed copy of the Dublin Statutes, and in the case of University College, Oxford, from Dr Ayliffe's work.—The inference drawn from these authorities was strengthened, in the memorial, by reference to a singular practice at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge. Dr Edmund Calamy was, on ac-

* Blackstone, i. 60.

count of his Calvinism, refused a fellowship, "but at last he so far conquered prejudices, as to be elected *tanquam* Socius of Pembroke Hall, an office peculiar to that College. Besides the society of the Fellows, the tanquam socius had *poma*, that is, his dividend in the garden; *pupillos*, that is, leave to take pupils; and *pileum*, that is, the honour of the cap, together with a certain stipend; *but no share in the government of the house.*" No mere circumstantial authority could prove more strongly that the Fellows (not only at Pembroke Hall but at the other colleges, for the tanquam Socius was 'peculiar' to Pembroke Hall) were resident instructers, and governors.

In reply to these considerations, it was contended, first, that a *fellow* in a college is not *technical;* that the word is found in other charters of other institutions; that it imports only associate. This reply, however, does not appear to have been much relied on, and in fact it is inconsistent with some of the other arguments against the Memorial. The other chief reply made to this argument of the memorial was, that the word *fellow*, in the English College charters, does not of itself imply residence; but that where residence is required, it is required by virtue of the by-laws or statutes; consequently, the mere use of the word *fellow* in the charter of Harvard College implies nothing

Considering the prominence given to this answer, we are constrained to say, that it appears to us an entire mistake of the gist of the argument. The Memorial argues, that the College Charter prescribes *five fellows*, and that a fellow in a college is a technical term. We go to the English Colleges, which contain several hundred fellows, to know what it does mean, and we there find it is, by the rule, an incumbent on the foundation, residing within the walls, and exercising the government and instruction of the house. It is plainly no answer to this argument to say that the residence &c. are all prescribed by the by-laws, that they are not matters of course.

Neither is it a sufficient answer to quote instances in which residence is dispensed with. It is true, it is dispensed with in the majority of cases. But it is equally true that this is an avowed departure from the ancient nature of the establishment, and often in violation of the founder's laws. In a passage cited by Mr Ticknor from a late Quarterly Review, this dispensation is spoken of as a "breaking in upon the rules laid down by our forefathers, as defeating the object of the founders of our colleges, and leaving in the colleges few per-

sons simply occupied in the cultivation of literature." Mr Ticknor infers from this passage two things. In one we not only join him, but shall have occasion to reason upon it in another connexion, viz. that the fellowships were foundations for students—for learners. The other inference, we confess, seems at war with the premises, viz. that "the rules prescribing residence, wherever they existed, were no more than by-laws, which the Corporations had power to dispense with, and which in fact have been dispensed with." The passage cited by Mr Ticknor from the Quarterly Review, speaks of dispensation from residence as a "breaking in upon rules," a "defeat of the object of the founder." This is precisely what the Memorial maintains,—that residence is the rule, dispensation is the breach of it; and that where the fellows do not reside, the "object of the founder is defeated."

[*To be continued.*]

The Foresters. By the Author of "Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life;" and "The Trials of Margaret Lyndsay." New-York. 1825. 12mo. pp. 360.

We do not know any works of the present day, which leave a more pleasant impression of the character of their author, than those produced by the writer of the story before us. They cannot perhaps be ranked in the very first class of fictitious writings. There are a great many blemishes both in the structure of his stories, in their detail, and in the style of the narrative. But, to say nothing of any other merits, there is a charm in the goodness of heart, the true and fervent piety, the nice sense of right and wrong, the acute perception of moral beauty, every where displayed, which is irresistibly attractive. We cannot read a dozen pages of his writing, without feeling, that this is a man to be loved and admired. It is true that we may be mistaken in this, and the author may be of a very different character; but this is the impression which has been always strongly produced upon us; and we are not, we believe, very apt to give too much credit to the appearance which is put on to come before the world with.

This novel, if novel we are to call it, wants, not perhaps unity of design, but is deficient in such a regular series of action as is necessary to a strong and continued interest in the

plot. Hence, although we take a lively concern in the characters, their good and bad fortunes, their weal and wo, we still are not carried on through the whole with that breathless and unbroken interest which is commonly deemed essential to the novel. It is a story which we can read at our leisure, at intervals long or short, as may be convenient. There is no call for going through with it at a heat, as is the case with the genuine novel to the genuine novel reader.

The story is exceedingly simple, and neither the incidents nor the characters display any fertility of invention. Adam Forester, an old Scotch gardener, has two sons, Michael and Abel: Michael the perfection of manly virtue,—Abel, seduced by a lively temperament and vicious companions into an evil course of life. Michael marries and settles down at home with his aged father, while Abel, going on from bad to worse, leaves home, and gives himself up to folly and crime. He is guilty of forgery, and in order to save him from an untimely and ignominious death, Michael relinquishes his whole patrimony and is reduced to want. The old man dies, Michael hires a new farm, and by industry becomes prosperous and happy. His wife is an angel, and his daughter, Lucy Forester, the heroine of the tale, promises to become her equal. A few years after their removal, Michael is stricken blind by a flash of lightning. His faith, however, his fortitude, and resignation, support him under this severe trial; and he continues to pass a tranquil and happy life, consoled by the sympathy and kind duties of his wife and daughter. Lucy, as she grows up, experiences, of course, some affairs of the heart. There is one childish attachment with Edward Ellis, a young man of a high family, which is broken off by his father; in whose decision, a very proper one, all parties acquiesce, with a readiness so much the more laudable, as it is almost unprecedented in the world of novels. Lucy afterwards escapes the snare laid for her virtue by a wealthy but unprincipled lover, and finally marries a man in all things sufficient to make her happy.

This is a mere outline. The intervals are filled up with a variety of incidents, and by the introduction of a variety of characters, not very essentially connected with the main series of events, but still giving an air of activity to the piece, which the quiet nature of the plot would not otherwise have allowed One remark is suggested to us by this work, and we believe

the same impression was made upon us by some others of the same author, which is, that he is disposed to look upon human nature in the most favourable point of view. He is inclined to give to every thing in human character the most benevolent construction. He cannot bear to dwell upon the crimes or frailties of his fellow men. He takes care to mingle in the character of even his worst personages, a few redeeming traits. The contemplation of unmixed villany seems to be more than he can well endure; and when forced by the course of events to introduce knaves, ruffians, or seducers, he hurries over his scenes in haste, as if the task were painful to him. But when the innocent, the virtuous, the religious are his theme, he dwells upon it with delight, he is copious in his descriptions, and seems never to be weary of the contemplation.

Thus, in "The Foresters," we fall in with scarcely an individual whose character and conduct do not contain so much of good as to command our love and sympathy, even though weak and frail. Michael Forester and his wife and daughter are all immaculate in their way. Michael exhibits a picture of the union, in humble life, of strong intellect, respectable education, stern integrity, undeviating principle, rational but ardent piety; and of the influence which these qualities may have in bearing a man up against apparent evil, and converting it into real good. He illustrates, too, the ascendancy which a character of this kind is capable of giving a man over others. Michael, blind and poor, is the object of reverence and respect to all around him; and, go where you may, this representation will, in the main, be found true. Virtue, integrity, and intelligence will give a man respect and consideration, in spite of lowliness and poverty.

Even Abel, the spendthrift brother and the prodigal son, is not left without a claim upon our sympathy and compassion. He goes astray more from lightness than from badness of heart, and suffers more from the easiness and facility of his temper, than from real depravity and baseness. He returns, too, broken down by want and suffering, and dies in the bosom of his family, cherished and forgiven. The same may be said of Isaac Mayne, the great scholar, who becomes vicious and is destroyed by his vices; the author cannot dismiss him till he has excited for him our compassion, and taught us to regard him more in sorrow than in anger. In short, from first to last, from the hero of the work down to the kind old shep-

herd of Patterdale, we see predominating the same disposition to look upon and to represent the bright side of human nature, —every thing tending to confirm and illustrate the benevolent opinion, that virtue and enjoyment are the essential attributes, sin and misery only the accidents of humanity.

Much of the same spirit is manifested in the views which are taken of the course of events in the world, and of the beauties of external nature. Every thing is made to work for good, or at least it is shown that every event, even the most adverse, if met by a proper disposition, may be made conducive in some way to our improvement, or at least consistent with our happiness. Nature is looked upon with the eye of a poet, and also with the eye of a Christian. All that is beautiful and grand in the field or the forest, the rock or the mountain, the heavens, the earth, or the sea, is associated with ideas of the greatness, the goodness, the universal and parental benevolence of the Creator.

There is something in the style and manner of this writer, which must strike every reader at once, as very peculiar and a good deal out of the common course, although it may be found very difficult to define exactly in what it consists. It bears a great affinity to the peculiarities which have distinguished the Lake school in poetry, and may be not unaptly designated, to use a term which has been almost naturalized among reviewers, as *Lakism* in prose. We cannot undertake its definition; but we venture to illustrate it, by remarking, that it reminds us very much of the spiritualism of the New Church. The writer before us, and others of the same class, for others there are, appear to have a system of correspondences between things, scenes, and events about them, and a spiritual world of their own, into which all cannot enter. Rocks, hills, rivers, mountains, forests, are not seen by them in the same plain matter-of-fact way that they are by other people; but all external objects seem to be to them the signs or symbols of mysterious language, of feelings and sympathies, to which common souls have not the key; they bring up in their minds a thousand associations, deep and delightful, just as a touch to the string of the harp calls into existence, not merely the single and full vibration of the whole chord, but a thousand smaller ones of its component parts, all in perfect harmony with the principal, all imperceptible to the uninitiated ear, but falling in rich and accordant music upon that of the adept. Let us not be understood to ridicule this sensi-

bility. It is only the excess of that which in itself, and excited by proper subjects, is the true poetical feeling. But, carried to an excess, and called into play upon the most trivial and common-place occasions, it becomes mere sentimentality, and appears like affectation.

In its proper sphere, exercised upon subjects of sufficient dignity, and removed to a distance from the common-places of life, it is the source of the most lofty flights of poetry. But it is obvious that the same sort of feelings cannot be consistently excited by subjects which are in themselves mean and trifling. The personification of a mountain and of a dung-hill are very different things. Not that subjects, which in this view are styled mean, are incapable of becoming the sources of poetical feeling; but that when they do become so, their power of excitement depends upon associations of a totally different kind.

Now it may be ungracious to say, of so fine a writer as the author of "The Foresters," that he has something of this fault; but it is nevertheless true. Still it is not a blemish of which we would make much account, our principal object being rather to suggest the peculiarity than to find fault with it. To many readers it is a beauty, and we confess that were it only occasional, we should esteem it such; but it is constant, not always pervading whole passages, though this happens often enough, but perpetually dropping in upon us in the midst of the most sober, every-day paragraphs. We quote a few expressions and passages, in which the species of affectation spoken of is exemplified.

"The houses of the more opulent looked out cheerfully, each over its own quiet pleasure-ground, nor seemed, in their unostentatious retirement," &c.

"He had felt on his side the motion of that virgin bosom, where purity, innocence, and loveliness were folded up together in most beautiful repose."

"There are often days, before February has closed, that come down unexpectedly and without warning from heaven, with a delightful summer feeling that is not exceeded in softness even by balmy June."

"Its white tower, and church-yard encircled with the murmur of that mountain torrent."

They "thought of themselves, and that sweet spring Sabbath, more than seventeen years ago, when in the gardens of Dovenest they found that a few words had betrothed them, and that a new

light, fairer than ever they had beheld before, was stealing over the woods of Dryden."

"Lucy, who never in all her life had been asked twice to do any thing she could do, warbled the wildest and most mournful spirit of the genius of her country. There were wet eyes during some of those airs; for worthy, indeed, were they of tears, sung as they now were by one to whom nature had taught the music of the heart, in whose sorrow innocence rejoices amidst the pauses of its gladness, and then returns more happy to its own living world. It seemed as she sung, that the composure of the soul within her almost sobered the golden gleam above her forehead, and touched with paleness the roses of her cheek. Fair moved the bosom of one not yet woman-grown, while those liquid murmurs left her lips apart in their beauty—and when at the close of the tune every tongue and eye applauded, Lucy soon recovered all her gladsome smiles, and lifted up from the sward, eyes that looked as if they could express no other emotion than that of rejoicing happiness."

To this last quotation particularly we would refer as an exquisite specimen. If there is any meaning hidden at the bottom of some of these expressions, it lies deeper than we can dig—we must leave it to the initiated.

One more passage we quote, which has all this strangeness and singularity, but is still intelligible.

"But what did Miles Colinson think of Lucy Forester? He could not forget the hour when first he saw Ruth wringing out the rain from her ringlets, as she stood among them in the Vicarage, beseeching them to say if her mother was indeed alive. But now those ringlets, although they had lost something of that sunny glow which the tempest could not tame with all its deluge, were far more lovely than ever, in the subdued and tender light that shone over her thoughtful forehead. Then she had been accustomed to gaze on every thing she beheld, with the almost instinctive delight of childhood,—but now Lucy understood more of the meanings on the face of nature, and looked over the heaven and the earth with a spirit of piety that felt God to be there, even while all her thoughts were about her fellow creatures and their habitations. Even when Lucy spoke of that festival on Windermere, which at the time had seemed to be more like a glorious train of sights passing in the trance of a fairy dream than a scene transacting on the bosom and banks of a real lake, it was with a calm and almost melancholy voice; for was she ever again to behold those clouds, and woods, and waterfalls, shadowed far down within the depths of that mirror, over whose surface not an air breathed to

veil with dim suffusion the reflected scenery of earth and heaven? 'Am I ever again to be at Ellesmere,' thought Lucy; and the same thought, more eager, ardent, impassioned, and overwhelming, was in the heart of him to whom Lucy was every hour becoming dearer and more dear, till even the very sense of her surpassing beauty was lost in a love that lived upon her whole delightful character, and could never die away while life lasted, even if that beauty were to be utterly extinguished—for still the maiden at his side would be Lucy Forester, and none but she was ever to be cherished in his heart, whether it had been already doomed that she was thenceforth to be to him but a shadow, or a steady light that might shine on him forever."

It is not to be denied that this style of writing, adopted by one of so much taste, genius, and poetry, as the author of "The Foresters," has something in it pretty and captivating, just as a little affectation sometimes sets off a handsome woman to advantage. Still we may have too much of it. Its relish will not last forever; it palls upon the sense; and in some cases becomes almost nauseous. It is only when united with great power of conception, a rich and fertile fancy, and with pure and elevated sentiments, that we are made to forget it.

We have dwelt longer upon this point than we intended, and fear that we shall be understood as speaking with more severity than we mean. It was in fact rather our object to point out and designate, than to censure it, for we feel certainly a diffidence in representing that as a blemish which so many regard as a beauty, so many for whose opinion in matters of taste we have a high respect. We feel the more diffidence when we remark, as we have often done, the very great resemblance in many peculiarities of manner and matter—we do not say imitation, for we believe there is none—between the author of this work and a writer among ourselves, who has now been too long silent;—a writer whose idleness once afforded us the literary pleasure of which it now deprives us.

There is something very touching in the account of Lucy's arrival at the Vicarage of Ellesmere, from Scotland, whence she had travelled alone on hearing of her mother's dangerous sickness.

"The Vicar, and indeed the whole family, had nearly given up all hope of Mrs Forester's recovery. A fatal crisis seemed to be at hand; and as if each person read in the other's eyes an intimation that they ought all to leave the room, one by one they began to do so, and at last none were left there with the dying per-

son but Mr Ianson and her husband. The family collected themselves together in the large room below, and there they sat, not without sobbing and tears, fearing every moment to see Mr Ianson coming down stairs, with a countenance telling that all was over. And thus they had sat nearly an hour,—the storm was hushed—and sunshine was again struggling through the gloom, and finding its way through the lead-latticed window to the floor of the room where they had been sitting so dark and silent. The swallows were beginning to twitter without—and nature slowly to reassume her customary cheerfulness and tranquillity. The door opened—and a stranger girl, stepping timidly across the floor, asked eagerly, 'Is this Mr Colinson's, the Vicar of Ellesmere? O Sir, I am the daughter of Michael Forester and Agnes Hay, and my name is Lucy. Is my mother in the land o' the living?'

"Many kind tongues, and eyes, and hands, were soon comforting the dutiful daughter; but Lucy heard nothing but that her mother was not dead. 'Oh! surely you are not deceiving me—and yet why are you all weeping so? Where is my father—perhaps he too is gone, and God's judgments more terrible than I can bear? Here am I, a' the way frae Scotland, come to pray by mother's bedside—and God has brought me here unharmed, by means o' the kind hands o' my fellow creatures, who all helped me on towards this house, so far away from Bracken-Braes where we live! Oh! my bonnie lassie, tell me—tell me—if my mother is indeed likely to live!' Ruth Colinson felt her own hopes strengthened by the passionate earnestness of this appeal, and said with a faint smile to Lucy, that her mother had not been worse since the morning, and that perhaps the danger might be past. Just then Mr Ianson came down stairs—and there was no fatal expression in his countenance—so Ruth once more assured her that there was hope. Then Lucy sat down and cried bitterly as if her heart would break.

"At such a time there was no need of deception or concealment. None knew how God was dealing with her in the room above; but here was the creature dearest to her on this earth, brought to her bedside as by a prayer. So they led Lucy to the sick-room, and in a moment, with every sob hushed, she was on her knees at her mother's bedside, with her forehead resting upon the hands of her father.

"The mind of Agnes had been wandering for some time—and the fever had caused many afflicting dreams. 'Poor Lucy drowned in that black marl-pit—merciful God! see her—see her clinging to a branch! What can a blind father do to save his child—oh! what shrieks! what shrieks!' Michael turned his sightless countenance towards Mr Ianson, as if he looked for comfort. In the agony of his despair, he believed that in medical knowl-

edge lay a foresight of futurity, and he felt as if even the issues of life and of death were committed to his mortal hands. 'Oh! father—father—I, your daughter Lucy, am here—put your hand upon my head and know—my mother's face is not so changed as I thought—and she will live—will live—and go back with us, under the mercy of the Almighty, to Bracken-Braes.' Michael Forester sat for a few moments mute and motionless—and then he, too, knelt down by the bedside of Agnes, and laid his cheek on Lucy's head, the touch of whose hair, wet as it was with the rains, and sorely dishevelled, was familiar to the yearnings of his inmost heart, and calmed in some measure the severity of his protracted passion."

The following extract shows accurate observation of human character and conduct under certain circumstances.

"Meanwhile various judgments were passed on the unfortunate girl and her friends at Bracken-Braes. It would sometimes seem as if the human heart, even in a state of comparative innocence and simplicity, found a pleasure in the worst distresses that can befal our common nature, and eyes that ought to overflow with compassion are often averted from suffering with a coldness that is indeed absolute cruelty. The young feared to pity Mary Morrison lest their own purity might be suspected, and the old lost in their anxiety for the virtue of their own children, the common feelings of humanity for her who had deviated from its paths. The censure was generally loud, the pity in a whisper; and when, in a week or two, gentler judgments and feelings arose, people were beginning to lose an interest in what did not immediately concern themselves, and Mary Morrison's name, if not forgotten, was unpronounced as if by general agreement. Neither was the conduct of Michael Forester and his wife allowed to pass without many comments—some of them by no means favourable: but his commanding character silenced open blame, and Michael was not a man to heed the opinions of the timid or uninformed, in a case where his duty shone clearly before him, and where nature and religion alike bade him shelter the orphan head. He did by no means despise the opinions of his fellow-creatures, but his conscience was his monitor, and a monitor enlightened by the Bible. Therefore no misgivings assailed the constancy of his protecting affection towards poor Mary Morrison—and he determined to see her vindicated before the eyes of men, as he believed her to be nearly so in the eyes of God."

We have only to add, by way of verbal criticism, that there is a remarkable singularity in the use of the word *that*, which can only be illustrated by examples, of which several may be

found in the preceding quotations, and they are to be met with upon every page of the book; as, for instance,—

"Lucy, at her bidding, would read the bible in *that* lonely hut, and Elspeth said, that, although somewhat deaf now she never lost a word of *that* low sweet, distinct voice. Garden flowers too she would often take to *that* hut," &c.

MISCELLANY.

JOURNAL OF A TOUR IN THE INTERIOR OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

Charleston, S. C. Sept. 1825.

Mr Editor,

A young friend of mine having lately occasion to travel through the state of South Carolina, I requested him to make for my private information such notes on his tour, as he might conceive would be useful or entertaining. Having been much pleased with the manner in which he complied with my request, I conceived that his letter would furnish a valuable article for your Miscellany. Certainly, the ground over which he has travelled has been untrodden by any of our numerous ephemeral tourists, and novelty, at least, will be one recommendation for the enclosed sketches. But your readers, if I am not mistaken, will be also gratified, with the variety of information condensed within this small compass. Few citizens, probably, of the northern section of our country, have very adequate ideas respecting the points touched by my correspondent. The dismal state of the roads in the lower country,—the general character of that whole region,—the manners of the common inhabitants,—the peculiarities in their dialect,—the condition of the rich planters,—the mode of treating slaves,—and other incidental topics, will furnish a pretty faithful picture of such things as the general reader would wish to contemplate. Should the style of the letter exhibit any marks of literary inexperience, it will be amply compensated by the unpretending simplicity with which the report has been drawn up, and the graphic freshness of the description.

A Subscriber.

Rev. and Dear Sir,

Agreeably to the engagement I made with you, I have here recorded all the observations worthy of particular attention, which my rapid journey would allow me to make. I set out

from Charleston on the 16th of April last, accompanied by a friend. The weather for several days previous had been excessively rainy, and travelling, even on horseback, was attended with danger, on account of the roads through the swamps, in many places, being filled with water, in some cases to the depth of three and four feet. This state of the roads commonly lasts for several days after the rain has ceased, when the water flows into its natural channels. At night we called at the plantation of the Hon. Judge L. whose family were at that time in the country. It is a general practice among the planters to leave the city, and retire for a few weeks to their plantations about the time of Christmas, and remain as late in the spring, as is deemed consistent with prudence; for all who are not natives of, or accustomed to the climate of the lower country, are liable to take the country fever by remaining later than the 10th or 15th of May, which is oftener fatal than otherwise. The natives of the low country, generally speaking, are of a sickly, yellowish complexion, though instances are not few, of their having attained to great ages, preserving all the faculties in full vigour to the last. Planters never visit their plantations during the summer months, unless they can return to a healthy spot before night. But you must not infer from this, that all the low country is unhealthy, for there are many settlements among the pine lands remarkable for their salubrity. Walterborough for instance is situated on an elevated pine ridge, and forms a very pleasant summer retreat.

We continued our journey on the 17th, rather against our will, the rain still continuing, and of course increasing the danger of crossing the water courses. Of this fact we soon had ample proof by a disaster, which had well nigh cost me my life. The horse I rode was one of that species well known in the low country under the denomination of "marsh tackies." They are a small but hardy animal, capable of undergoing fatigue to a great degree. In crossing Walnut Creek, he got out of his depth (probably for the first time in his life), and plunged instead of swimming to the opposite shore, whence he ran with all the speed that the nature of the place would allow, carrying me with great force against a projecting limb of a tree, which had the effect of leaving me among the cypress knees immersed in water; after which he kicked off the saddle and bags, and then suffered me to catch and tie him to a tree, that I might wade down the creek to recover them. By this time my friend had procured aid from a farmer in the neighbourhood, whose servant led my horse out of this miserable hole. I cannot but admire the hospitality of this man's family. He gave me a clean suit of homespun to wear, while his daughter prepared a dinner of the best she had, and my clothes were washed and dried, saddle and bags repaired, &c. nor would they take

any compensation whatever, saying they had done nothing more than their duty.

Bad places through the swamps, though they are the worst (at least I found them so), are not the only evil the traveller must contend with; there is a kind of stiff, clayey land of a reddish colour, through which many of our roads pass, and when much travelled by ox-carts, or the heavy four-horse waggons of the upper country, they are cut up to such a degree, that the horse will sink to his girths in this bog or mud, from which situation nothing short of the most violent exertion can extricate him. Oxen have been known to perish in this way, the *suction* of the bog being too great to be overcome by their strength. When a piece of road of this kind is to be put in order, it is effected by cutting poles of a proper length and laying them across it near each other. After the same manner causeways are repaired, the ends of the poles being pinned down to prevent their floating away, when the waters are up. Every planter is liable to this tax of working on the roads, and when summoned is obliged to send out all his male slaves between certain ages. On the night of the 18th we arrived safely at Orangeburg, a neat little village about 80 miles from Charleston. In this neighbourhood, we saw the first rising ground since we had left the city; the intervening country being perfectly level, without the appearance of any thing like stones or rocks.

For three or four miles below Orangeburg the road was entirely covered with water, and not a foot deep any where; such is the levelness of the country. The hoe seems universally to be used in the low country, as the principal instrument of agriculture. Cotton, corn, and rice, are now the great staples of the country. Indigo and tobacco are almost wholly neglected, having given place to the more profitable article, cotton. I have been informed that all over eleven or twelve cents on cotton is clear profit, and with this view some have gone so far as to sacrifice corn to cotton; preferring to purchase corn with the profits arising from the cotton. While on this subject I cannot forbear mentioning, that the high price of cotton several years ago was the immediate cause of embarrassment, and in many cases of total ruin to a great number of the planters of this state. Many to this day have not recovered from the shock. But to explain this more fully you must know, that at the period when short staple cotton was at from 30 to 34 cents per pound it yielded a profit of from 18 to 22 cts. per pound, so that raising cotton was next to coining. Under these favourable circumstances, the planters, not suspecting that a decline in price would take place, not only invested all their capital in the purchase of lands and negroes at enormous prices, but strained their credit to the highest pitch. The

jealous eyes of other nations did not long see the Southern States in this apparent prosperity, without making vigorous efforts to share their good fortune. Accordingly cotton fields were seen displaying their pods in Africa, the East Indies, and various other sections of the globe. This unlooked-for competition reduced the prices more than one half. The bonds, notes, and other obligations were now to be taken up, to the complete ruin of all those, who purchased on a credit, and with immense loss to the cash purchasers. From 15 to 17 cents is a fair price for cotton, and no well-wisher of the Southern States should even desire to see it higher, for fear of the consequences just stated.

Many of the country seats of the rich planters are elegant; the beautiful avenues of live-oak, which lead from the road to the doors of the mansions tend to give a grand and beautiful effect to the whole. The habitations of the common people are constructed of logs, and one story high. The chimneys are of the same material, but plastered with clay to prevent their taking fire. You perhaps may smile at the idea of a wooden chimney, but I believe it is more a matter of necessity than of choice; the poverty of the country in mineralogy being the cause. The houses are generally about 12 feet wide, by 24 in length; a partition in the middle divides them into two rooms. In addition to these, they have two shed rooms for the accommodation of visitors and children. Of the two apartments first spoken of, one is used as a bedroom for the heads of the family, the other is occupied as a sitting, drawing, and dining room, or, as they call it, "The Hall." The furniture of this is composed of about a dozen strong oaken chairs of the old school, with seats of deer or alligator skins, or hickory shavings; a large pine table, which answers all the purposes of a sideboard, secretary, and card tables; a spinning-wheel, and "last though not least," a *wooden clock*. Mr B., a farmer, informed me that these clocks were introduced by pedlars from Connecticut, and in succeeding years they brought fresh supplies accompanied by the cases, stating that the clocks would be injured by the dust and moisture of the atmosphere; another would pass along who "cleaned clocks," and get a job of every man who owned one; and, lastly, one would go the rounds* bushing the pivot-holes with brass, after which the machine was thought to be complete.

The manners of the common people of the lower country are by no means polished, neither can they be said to be rough. I did not find them a very inquisitive people, although they are all great talkers.

Their moral character seems to have undergone some change for the better within a few years. Formerly during the sitting of the court, or at a general muster, when all the men are col-

* A term used by mechanics.

lected, brawling, fighting, and drinking to excess were deemed necessary consequences; but at the present time, the two former of these barbarous practices have almost entirely died away, while it is thought that the latter is losing ground. The custom among them of drinking whiskey, prevails almost all over the state, and they never fail of offering a stranger a draught of this beverage.

On the subject of slavery I wish I had it in my power to give you a clear and distinct view, but it is only my intention to say, to the best of my knowledge, what their present situation is, and their treatment generally. Planters commonly provide for their slaves in the following manner. In the fall of the year, after the sale of their crops, each negro is furnished with a pair of comfortable blankets, a suit of plains in cold and osnaburgs in warm weather, and one pair of shoes to last him the winter. The allowance of food, which is served to them weekly, is a peck of corn one or two mackerel, sweet potatoes, pease, and small rice; fresh meat is seldom given to them except at christmas, and in the month of July, when it is customary to kill beef enough for the whole of them. Physicians are always employed to attend the sick, and are paid a certain sum per annum for the whole, or for each individual as the case may be. As the spring approaches, they have their summer clothing furnished, and their regular tasks assigned to them for the day; these tasks are very frequently finished before 12 o'clock, and during the remainder of the day, they attend to their own private concerns, which generally consist in the cultivation of a little spot of land, that is granted to every one; and in addition to this, they are allowed to raise any quantity of poultry, pick moss, &c. In the winter season they are employed principally in clearing land, repairing fences, rice-dams, &c. The produce of their little pieces of land, is variously disposed of, according to the the pleasure of the owner; it is often bartered at the neighbouring shops for tobacco, pipes, whiskey, and sugar. Should a slave fail in performing his task, and not have a sufficient excuse, he is punished by whipping, though not unmercifully, as has often been represented. To this rule of course there are exceptions; but I have always observed, that where this tyranny has been exercised, it was by men who were worse than the slaves themselves.

The overseer is a white man, who attends generally to the concerns of the plantation, such as weighing the cotton, serving the provisions, harvesting the crop, and corresponding with the planter during the summer months.

The driver is a confidential negro fellow, whose business is to ride over the fields, and see that the work is faithfully done; he also attends to the laying out of tasks.

[To be continued.]

ORIGINAL POETRY.

THE PERPETUAL YOUTH OF NATURE.

A SOLILOQUY.

With what a hollow voice these broken ruins
Tell of the vanished past. Here they are thrown
Too rudely for the most inquiring eye
To read one legend of the men who reared them,
Or even form a guess of those who made
These walls their home. It is a beautiful clime,
And all the year is lovely on these shores;
For there is neither winter here to blight,
Nor the hot sun to dry the fountains up,
And make the plains a desert. Nature here
Has built her bower of evergreens; and flowers
Are never wanting for her festivals,
And these are every day, and there is in them
Such a perpetual variety
Of bright and fair, the heart is never weary
Of the soft revelry;—and yet no trace
Of human footsteps on the bordering sands
Of the calm ocean, gives a sign that man
Has found his way before me to this haunt
Of silence and repose. Well, be it so,
And I will hold myself the rightful lord
Of all this fair domain, by the strong claim
Of first discovery. No inheritance
Of gilded palaces, or loaded fields
Bent with a thousand harvests, could so fill
My spirit with the stirring health of joy,
As thus to hold myself the sole possessor
Of such a solitude—so full of life,
And yet so mute,—so bright and beautiful,
And yet so darkly shadowed with the pall
Of buried ages. How the merry vines
Go gadding in the brisk and spirited air,
That even calls from out the barren rocks
A welcoming smile. The wind is very low—
It hardly wags the shrinking violet,
Or sends a quiver to the aspen leaf,
Or curls the green wave on the pebbled shore,
Or gives a wrinkle to the quiet sea,
That, like a giant resting from his toil,
Sleeps in the morning sun. That flowery palm

Has a most glorious aspect, as he bows
In silent worship to his rising god;
And from his station on the tallest pile
Of these mysterious ruins, once the shrine,
It may be, of the living Sun himself,
How like a most majestic sovereign
He keeps his lofty seat, and yet adores
The Lord that made him. It is wonderful,
That man should hold himself so haughtily,
And talk of an immortal name, and feed
His proud ambition with such daring hopes,
As creatures of a more eternal nature
Alone should form. Why, 't is a mockery
Too poor for tears, and yet too sad for smiles,
To think how much of glitter and of pride
Has flaunted in the Sun, and sent him back
His fullest beams. These rude disjointed heaps,
That seem the chaos of a broken world,
And hardly give us signs enough to show,
They were not thrown from out the central earth
By an upheaving earthquake—these were bright
With such barbaric pomp, as made the Sun
Muffle his head, and hide himself at noon
To shun the poor encounter. So they sung,
The sycophants, who told the gorgeous tyrant
Of these once peopled shores, he was a god,
And with the port and bearing of a god
Sat on his throne, or in his chariot
Went sounding on his long triumphal way.
Fools! and where are they? Not a mark to tell
The shadows of their names—The tooth of Time
Has ground the marble sculptures to rude forms
Such as the falling waters eat from rocks
In the deep gloom of caves;—and yet, as if
They meant to show their scorn of him, who calls
Himself their lord, the beasts and creeping things
Have come from out their deserts and their holes,
And made their dens in the crushed palaces,
And round the buried altars hollowed out
Their lurking-places. O! how fresh and fair
Grows the young grass, and how the wild vines clasp
The rifted columns, with as bright a foliage,
As when from out the bosom of the earth
First rose the rampant Spring, and the glad Sun
Laughed from his azure throne to see the buds
Put out their tender leaves, and the soft green
Spread like a carpet to the tented sky. P.

A SIMPLE STORY.

There never was a gentler creature
In city, village, or in town,
Or one of lovelier heart and feature,
Or better taught than Anna Brown.
Her step was like the antelope's,
Her eye beamed like a startled kid's,
Her cheek soft blushing with the hopes
That youth into existence bids.

The village loved her, friendship hushed it;
And if the tale of slander came,
Both old and young rose up and crushed it,
And fixed on other cheeks the shame.
'T was seldom needed—female virtue
Has in itself protection strong;
And, maidens! if the viper hurt you,
It must be ye are in the wrong.

There came one day, to woo the maiden,
A sparkling youth in courtly guise,—
A rural lad with spring-flowers laden
To win to love the beauteous prize.
She takes, oh, simple girl! the former,
And sends the village swain away;
She 'll find, alas! his cottage warmer
Than the proud dwelling of Jack Gray.

She married Jack, he spent his living
In thriftless aims, and deadly brawls;
And she, his wickedness forgiving,
Dwelt weeping in his lonely halls.
It seemed as if her soft form melted,
So thin and colourless see grew,
And they who saw how sorrow pelted,
Deemed that her days on earth were few.

He died, but not till his last shilling
Had wanton women's cravings fed;
He left her pennyless, but willing
To earn by honest toil her bread.
She leaves the city, and its glitter,
Its grandeur oft from peace apart;
Deeming her native village fitter
To hide her broken hopes and heart.

She reached it; scarce her mother knew her,
So blanched her cheek, and sunk her eye;
And the old friends that gathered to her,
Deemed 't was a phantom flitting by.
They press her hands, and some are kissing,
Try every art to make her glad;
None from the joyful group are missing,
E'en Willie comes, the baffled lad.

Hope and kind nursing to health brought her,
Again the rose bloomed on her cheek,
And lovers gay and wealthy sought her,
But grief has made her wishes meek.
She thanks them for their splendid proffers
Of jewels rich and trappings gay;
But says she better likes the offers,
That Willie makes the Widow Gray.

J.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

A Treatise on the Law of Descents in the several United States of America. By Tapping Reeve, late Chief Justice of Connecticut. New York, 1825. 8vo. pp. lxxvii. and 515.

The design of this book is clearly signified in its title. The author's view of the subject embraces all the Atlantic States, except Maine, whose recent separation from Massachusetts, probably, induced him to think there was nothing sufficiently peculiar in its laws of descent to require distinct consideration. Of the Western States, he treats of none but Ohio. Whether Mr Reeve omitted the Mississippi states on account of the short time which had elapsed since their settlement, or for what other cause, we know not; but we regret that he past over Louisiana in particular, whose institutions have been influenced so much more than those of other states by the civil law, that the examination of them would have been well worth his attention. Lawyers in this country, we apprehend, are beginning to be satisfied of the importance to them of acquiring a knowledge of the civil law; and to despise the narrow prejudices, which have discouraged the study of it in England. And as nearly every thing estimable in the particular system of descents among us is borrowed from the civil law, while nearly all the defects of that system derive their origin from the common law, we should expect much profit from comparing the peculiarities of Louisiana with those of the Atlantic States.

But, within the limits of the author's plan, his book, although less meritorious and important than Mr Stearns's on Real Actions, is, like that, another valuable fruit of the establishment of law schools. It consists, first, of some general explanations of terms and principles in the law of descents, introductory to the main body of the work; then of an abstract of the rules of descent in the several states above described, illustrated by a great variety of cases supposed or collected; and lastly, of a general view of their differences in relation to certain principles, and a general view of all their respective peculiarities.

It would be foreign to our purpose to enter into a minute examination of Mr Reeve's work; nor do we feel competent to speak of the accuracy of all the parts of a treatise, containing an abridgment, upon a very nice and intricate subject, of the statute and expository law of fifteen states. But judging more confidently from a knowledge of the introductory matter and of the section on Massachusetts, than from the perusal of the rest of the work, we hesitate not to express an opinion that the profession will find it fraught with curious and useful instruction.

Few persons in this country can be ignorant of the immense superiority of our doctrine of descents, compared with the principles which regulate them at common law. The rules in the latter are essentially of feudal extraction. Hence the descent of the land in England to the oldest son to the exclusion of the rest. The feud having been originally granted to one individual, on condition of the grantee's rendering military service to the grantor, the perpetual integrity of the feud was deemed indispensable to the full discharge of that service. The possession of the feud being, also, frequently connected with a title of honour, it was necessary that the lands, which supported the rank, should descend indivisibly like the title. The forfeiture of lands by attainder, the exclusion of the half-blood, and other monstrous features of the common law, may, it is well known, be traced to the same barbarous and monarchical institutions established in the darkness of the middle ages. When the common law came to be, as it is with us, the law of a republican people, of a people whose fundamental maxims are the encouragement of industry, the promotion of general improvement, the abolition of all hereditary distinctions and of all the injurious privileges of birth, this law underwent of necessity very essential changes, in order to accommodate it to our situation, wants, and feelings.

The *mode of change*, in almost every case, has been to adopt, with various modifications, the rule of descents by the Roman law, that much calumniated code, whose genuine doctrines, being the growth of a republic, are certainly much more republican than those of the common law, the product of a monarchy. This

has been the mode of change; but the great *principle of change*, often unseen yet always at work, has been to do away the difference between *descent* and *distribution*, or, in other words, the extraordinary distinctions made by the common law between property in land and property in goods, so odious in itself, and so unfit for a commercial nation, where every thing should favour the unembarrassed exchange of values. The operation of the improved principle has been pushed to various degrees in the various states; but in all, with the most beneficial effects. We hope, ere long, to see it carried to the full extent which the public good requires. In distributing real estate like personal, according to the civil law, and in making lands in all cases liable for debts, we have begun the salutary reform; why should we not proceed one step further, and give a creditor the same right to obtain payment of his debt by the sale of the real, as by the sale of the personal, estate of his debtor? The provisions concerning the levy of executions existing in most of the states, which compel the creditor to accept the land itself set off at an arbitrary appraisement in satisfaction of his judgment, are, as we conceive, a relic of feudal injustice, exceedingly prejudicial to the progress of industry, and answering no useful purpose whatsoever. The subject is one that demands the attention of our legislators.

Zophiel. A Poem. By Mrs Brooks. Boston. 1825. 18mo. pp. 72.

As to this book we have done what we suspect has been done by very few; we have actually read it through. We had previously seen several favourable notices of it, and we wished not to be thought hypercritical. We also perceived that the author was a lady, and after we had read a few lines, we hoped a young lady, and therefore were anxious to find something to praise if we could. We have found nothing, and it is with regret that we feel ourselves compelled to say, that with our own good will we can never open another of Mrs Brooks's poems. The poverty of language displayed in the very many awkward inversions, harsh elisions, and violations of grammar, we were willing to pass over, so long as we could persuade ourselves that the author was young; but when we found the muse described as a middle-aged gentlewoman, somewhat *embonpoint;* and noticed that this appeared to be a style of beauty very much to the author's taste, we could not but suspect a natural cause for this preference, and even concluded in our own minds that the author had sat for her own picture. If this be the case, there is no hope that Mrs Brooks will ever write poetry; her faults are such as we might indulge in a young writer who had time to mend; but an author of forty, who can pardon such faults in herself, has no

excuse. We are the more confirmed in this opinion, because in the whole poem—in all the poems—we cannot find a single stanza, we doubt if there be a single line, which is not full of the same faults—intolerable harshness of metre, and obscurity produced by unauthorized inversions of language. It would seem as if the author had gone upon principle; determined to tire her readers' jaws in pronouncing her lines, and worry out their patience in guessing at the meaning of her stanzas, each of which is a riddle. We have solved many of them with much labour; but there are some which have ultimately baffled us. There are fifty-four pages in this book on which verses are printed. We purpose to give six extracts taken indifferently, at pretty nearly equal distances through the book; and that we may not be accused of unfair dealing we will take only the first stanzas on each page. The story, the longest piece, is intended as near as we can conjecture, to be a versification of that of Tobit in the Apocrypha; out of which we think a very pretty story might be made, but Mrs Brooks has not made one. Her descriptions, or rather her attempts at description, describe nothing; her personifications make us think of the line quoted by Coleridge from a college exercise, "Inoculation—heavenly maid! descend!!" and in brief, we have found neither poetry, nor common sense, nor rhythm in the book.

"Thou with the dark blue eye upturned to heaven,
And cheek now pale, now warm with radiant glow,
Daughter of God,—most dear,—
Come with thy quivering tear,
And tresses wild, and robes of loosened flow,—
To thy lone votaress let one look be given!

Come Poesy; nor like some just-formed maid,
With heart as yet unswoln by bliss or woe;—
But of such age be seen
As Egypt's glowing queen,
When her brave Roman learned to love her so
That death and loss of fame, were, by a smile, repaid.

* * * *

The time has been—this holiest records say—
In punishment for crimes of mortal birth,
When spirits banished from the realms of day
Wandered malignant o'er the nighted earth.

* * * *

Know I have marked, that when the reason why
Thou still wouldst live in virgin state, thy sire
Has prest thee to impart, quick in thine eye
Semblance of hope has played—fain to transpire
Words seem'd to seek thy lip.

* * * *

But oh! severest pain; I cannot be
In what I love, blest ev'n the little span—
(With all a spirit's keen capacity
For bliss) permitted the poor insect man.

* * * *

Thus secret he, the pearly bracelet holding,
Lending his lip to accents sweetlier bland
The light that clipt him, half the maid enfolding
Half given—tho' dubious half—her lilly hand.

* * * *

Thou who wert born of Psyche and of Love
And fondly nurst on Poesy's warm breast
Painting, oh, power adored!
My country's sons have poured
To thee their orisons; and thou hast blest
Their votive sighs, nor vainly have they strove.

We are sorry to speak thus harshly; but so many such publications as this have recently appeared, that our patience is really exhausted; especially when we see that there are those who ought to know better, and who, as we believe, do know better, ready to puff each of them as it appears, and thus aid in the corruption of the public taste.—One remark more and we have done. The first note on page 21, is expressed in language highly irreverent, and we think even if the author be an Atheist, she might, in common prudence, have spared us so disgusting an avowal of her sentiments.

INTELLIGENCE.

NEW WORK ON CHEMISTRY.

Dr Webster, lecturer on chemistry in Harvard University, is preparing for the press a new work on that science. It is intended, we learn, to be used as a text-book for lectures, and as an elementary work for recitations. The work is to be accompanied by very numerous plates, and by a volume of tables comprising all that are valuable and are now scattered through the different works on chemistry.

OPTICAL PHENOMENON.

A cloud was lately observed, near Dover in England, which seemed to rest partly on the sea, and extended along the horizon nearly as far as the eye could reach, beginning at the Dover point. Every vessel was not only reflected from it, but there appeared to be two distinct images of each vessel—one immediately above the real object, and inverted; the other in its proper position, on the top of the cloud, sailing in the air. The French cliffs had a most curious appearance, resembling a white castle, or extended fortification, suddenly raised upon the

sea, at a distance of less than a mile, and covering a space of ten miles. Between this and the spectator, clouds were so dispersed as to render the whole a magnificent object. The town of Sandwich also, with the beach &c., were seen in the air in an inverted position. This spectacle lasted an hour and a half, and on the approach of night, gradually faded away.

ENCKE'S COMET.

"The Encke Planet, improperly as we conceive, denominated a comet by many astronomers, had often, previous to the verifying of its return in an orbit, in May 1822, according to M. Encke's prediction, been observed by astronomers, and its place set down in their catalogues as a fixed star; the collating of these early observations with later and present ones, in order to perfect the theory of the movements of this small planet has appeared to M. C. Rumker of sufficient importance to induce him to search for and collect twenty-three of these observations of the Encke, whilst mistakenly considered as a star; reducing the right ascension and declination in each of these observations, to the beginning of January 1823 as a common epoch." *Brande's Journal.*

SEA FISH IN FRESH WATERS.

The breeding and fattening of sea-fish in fresh waters has been pursued with ardour and perfect success by a Mr Arnold in the island of Guernsey, who in a pond of about four acres, on the coast, has no less than 37 species of sea-fish, which Dr Mac Culloch enumerates; including turbot, cod, mackerel, plaice, flounder, sole, herring, sprat, prawn, shrimp, oyster, muscle, &c. No kind of sea-fish which has been introduced, has died, or suffered deterioration, in consequence of its change of element. This pond having been embanked from the sea, is, during all the winter months, so copiously supplied by a brook, as to be perfectly fresh. During some periods in the spring and autumn, owing to the decrease of the brook, and to leaks through the embankment at high water, the pond becomes brackish; and during a part of most summers, it is almost salt; and yet none of the great quantity and variety of fish therein, seem, Dr Mac Culloch says, to suffer inconvenience from these changes. These and numerous other facts ought to put an end to the idle and mischievous speculations carrying on by the anti-Smithian geologists, concerning temporary *fresh water lakes* in which they pretend that several of the strata of England were formed, merely because these strata entomb some fish of the same *genera* (an artificial and conventional classification) with fish of *other species* which are usually found in the sea; but which, as we see here, may not always have occupied salt water.

PECTIC OR COAGULATING ACID.

This new acid has been discovered by M. H. Braconnot, and receives its name from *πηκτὸς*, *coagulum*, in consequence of its resembling a jelly or gum. It is found in all vegetables. It is sensibly acid. It reddens turnsole paper. It is scarcely soluble in cold water, but more so in hot water. It is coagulated into a transparent and colourless jelly by alchol, by all the metallic solutions, by limewater, water of barytes, the

acids, muriate and sulphurate of soda, nitre, &c. It forms with potash a very soluble salt, consisting of 85 parts acid and 15 potash. This salt has the remarkable effect of communicating to large masses of sugar and water the property of gelatinizing, which renders it of great use to the confectioner. M. Braconnot in this way prepared aromatized jellies, perfectly transparent and colourless, and very agreeable to the taste, and the eye. He also made with rosewater, coloured with a little cochineal, rose-jelly of exquisite taste.

SINGULAR EASTERN CUSTOM.

In a paper on the natural history &c. of the Himalayah mountains, by Dr Govan, in Brewster's "Journal of Science," he states, that while at Nahan, which is from 3000 to 3200 feet above the level of the sea, he first "noticed the custom which has been frequently observed to prevail in these districts, of laying the children to sleep, apparently much to their satisfaction, at the commencing heats and until the rainy season begins, with their heads under little rills of the coldest water, directed upon them for some hours, during the hottest part of the day. Here it was practised in the case of a life no less precious than that of the young rajah of Sirmoor, a boy about 10 or 12 years of age, a sufficient evidence of the estimation in which the practice is held. It is most commonly, however, followed in the case of infants at the breast. The temperature of the water I have observed to be from 46° to 56° and 65°, and have only to add that it seemed to me most common in those districts which, having a good deal of cold weather, are nevertheless subject to very considerable summer heats. It was a great preservative, the people affirmed, against bilious fever and affections of the spleen during the subsequent rainy months."

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

AGRICULTURE.

Touches on Agriculture, including a Treatise on the Preservation of the Apple Tree. Together with Family Receipts, Experiments on Insects, &c. By Henry Putnam, Esq. Second edition enlarged. 8vo. pp. 64. Salem. J. D. Cushing.

This pamphlet is composed of a great variety of desultory remarks. Some of them are true and highly useful, but many have no object that we can discover, but to show the wit of the author. The treatise on the Preservation of the Apple Tree contains many excellent suggestions on the subject.

BIOGRAPHY.

Memoir of Simon Bolivar, Liberator of South America. New York. D. Fanshaw.

EDUCATION.

Observations on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States; with Suggestions for its Accomplishment. By Walter R. Johnson, Principal of the Academy at Germantown, Pennsylvania. 8vo. pp. 28. Philadelphia. E. Little. 1825.

A very sensible pamphlet on a very important subject. We shall take occasion to notice it more at length hereafter.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Remarks on Changes lately Proposed or Adopted in Harvard University. By George Ticknor, Smith Professor, &c. 8vo. pp. 48. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

New York Review and Atheneum Magazine. No. V. For October, 1825.

POETRY.

Orondalie: A Tale of the Crusades. By Byron Whippoorwill, Esq.; to which are added other Original Poems. 8vo. pp. 56. Hudson, N. Y. P. Sturtevant.

THEOLOGY.

Gospel Advocate, conducted by a Society of Gentlemen. Vol. V. No. X. Boston. True & Green.

The Christian Spectator. Vol. VII. No. X.

An Address, delivered at the Commencement of the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, held in Christ's Church, New York, on the twenty-ninth day of July, 1825. By James Kemp, D. D. Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Maryland. Published at the request of the Trustees. 8vo. New York. T. & J. Swords.

Biblical Repertory. Vol. I. No. 4. Princeton, N. J.

Christian Sympathy, a Sermon preached to the Congregation of English Protestants, in the city of Rome, Italy, on Easter Sunday, 3d April, 1825. By Bishop Hobart. 8vo. Philadelphia. Price 19 cents.

An Appeal to Liberal Christians, for the Cause of Christianity in India. By a Member of the Society for Obtaining Information respecting the State of Religion in India. 8vo. pp. 63. Boston.

A Sermon delivered on the Twenty-Fifth Anniversary of the Boston Female Asylum. September 23, 1825. By F. W. P. Greenwood. 8vo. pp. 20. Boston.

Speaking of the policy of those governments, which discourage the general diffusion of knowledge, Mr Greenwood observes:—"Far different were the views of those gifted patriarchs who founded a new empire here. They were determined that all their children should be taught of the Lord; and side by side with the humble dwellings, which sheltered their heads from the storms of a strange world, arose the school-house and the house of God. And ever after the result has been peace, great, unexampled peace; peace to the few, who gradually encroached on the primeval forests of the land, and peace to the millions who have now spread themselves abroad in it from border to border. In the strength and calm resolution of that peace, they stood up once, and shook themselves free from the rusted fetters of the old world; and in the beauty and dignity of that peace they stand up now, self-governed, orderly, and independent, a wonder to the nations. If a stranger should inquire of me the principal cause and source of this greatness of my country, would I bid him look on the ocean widely loaded with our merchandise, and proudly ranged by our navy; or on the lands where it is girdled by roads, and scored by canals, and burthened with the produce of our industry and ingenuity? Would I bid him look on these things as the springs of our prosperity? Indeed I would not. Nor would I show him our colleges and literary institutions, for he can see nobler ones elsewere. I would pass all these by, and would lead him out by some winding highway among the hills and woods, and when the cultivated spots grew small and infrequent, and the houses became few and scattered, and a state of primitive nature seemed to be immediately before

us, I would stop in some sequestered spot, and directed by a steady hum, like that of bees, I would point out to him a lowly building, hardly better than a shed, but full of blooming, happy children, collected together from the remote and unseen farm-houses, conning over their various tasks, or reading with a voice of reverential monotony, a portion of the Word of God; and I would bid him note, that even here, in the midst of poverty and sterility, was a specimen of the thousand nurseries in which all our children are taught of the Lord, and formed, some to legislate for the land, and all to understand its constitution and laws, to maintain their unspotted birthright, and contribute to the great aggregate of the intelligence, the morality, the power and peace of this mighty commonwealth."

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

The Elements of English Composition; serving as a Sequel to the Study of Grammar. By David Irving, LL. D. author of the Lives of the Scottish Poets. Second American from the sixth London edition. 12mo. pp. 312, Georgetown, D. C. James Thomas.

This book will equal any expectations raised by the author's own account of it. "In the following pages," says he, "the reader need not expect to discover any originality of observation: I desire to be regarded in no other light than that of a mere compiler. Concerning every critical subject which has fallen under my review, I have endeavoured to collect the most rational opinions of writers distinguished for their learning and judgment. For any valuable instruction, which this compilation may exhibit, the reader is principally indebted to Dr Blair's *Lectures on Rhetorick*, Dr Campbell's *Philosophy of Rhetorick*, Lord Kames' *Elements of Criticism*, Bishop Lowth's *Introduction to English Grammar*, and Mr Melmoth's *Letters of Fitzosborne*." These are excellent authorities, and the author has made judicious use of them in compiling his manual for the use of those just entering upon the subject.

The Works of the Rev. Richard Cecil, M. A. late Rector of Bisley, &c.; with a Memoir of his Life. Arranged and Revised, with a View of the Author's Character; by Josiah Pratt, B. D. F. A. S. 3 vols. 12mo. Boston. Crocker & Brewster.

Works of Maria Edgeworth. Vol. XII. containing "Early Lessons." 8vo. Boston. S. H. Parker.

A Theoretical and Practical Arithmetic; in which the Principles of that Science are clearly and fully explained; being intended as an Introduction to the Higher Branches of Mathematics. By Bézout. Enlarged and adapted to the use of Young Traders, Bankers, &c. by F. Peyrard. Translated from the French, improved, and adapted to the Currency of the United States, by Noble Heath. Baltimore. S. S. Wood & Co.

Merivale's Chancery Reports. 3 vols. 8vo. New York. O. Halsted.

A Greek and English Lexicon of the New Testament, from the "Clavis Philologica of Christ. Abr. Wahl, late Senior Pastor of Schneeberg, now Superintendant of Oschaz, Saxony. By Edward Robinson, A. M. Assistant Instructer in the Department of Sacred Literature in the Theological Seminary at Andover. 8vo. pp. 852. Andover. Flagg & Gould.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74 Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. III. NOVEMBER 15, 1825. No. 4.

REVIEWS.

Tremaine, or the Man of Refinement. Philadelphia. In three volumes. 1825. 12mo.

THIS is rather a series of dialogues on morals and natural religion, than a novel. But we are quite indifferent concerning the name which the author may choose to give his performances, so long as they are as agreeable as the one before us. The story is slight enough. Tremaine, a gentleman of talents, accomplishments, and fortune, carries his refinement to such an extent as to become disgusted with almost every thing in the world about him. He retires to his country-seat to escape from society and all necessity of exertion, and to enjoy the sweets of leisure and solitude. It is scarcely necessary to observe that the experiment is unsuccessful. He becomes diseased in mind and body, and is fortunately compelled by business to seek another residence. His pursuits, or rather his want of pursuit, is here disturbed by an old college friend, Dr Evelyn, who, with his daughter Georgina, undertakes to rouse him from his torpidity. The father does something, but the daughter more, and he is gradually renovated. He falls in love with the lady, who refuses his addresses on the ground of his scepticism in religion. He accordingly sets seriously about a conversion, and in this is assisted by the father. The work ends with the marriage of the parties. This groundwork is enlarged a little by some episodical matter, and the introduction of a few additional characters, who have little or nothing to do with the main action. The story

in short is little more than a vehicle, as we before observed, for a series of dialogues, in which the author's opinions on the several topics are put into the mouth of Dr Evelyn.

Philosophy as well as religion teaches that virtue is the best policy, even in this world, as conferring the greatest amount of happiness; that the cultivation of the social affections is as much a part of virtue as justice and generosity, and that the exercise of these is peculiarly adapted to gratify the principal motive of human action, the desire of present gratification. Our sympathy goes along with good illustrations of these doctrines, which serve to connect the ideas of duty and pleasure, and such illustrations are presented in the volumes before us. The characters of Dr Evelyn and Georgina are perfectly natural; they neither do nor say any thing which might not easily be done and said in common life. They are not placed in any very remarkable circumstances, nor is the account of them attended by any romantic incident. We cannot help feeling that their happiness is real, and that it arises from sentiments and conduct which it is in our power to imitate. The contemplation of happiness and contentment, when accompanied with mental activity, is one of the most agreeable, that can be presented to the mind; and we are apt to regard the lot of those with whom we are acquainted as more or less desirable, in proportion as it seems to possess the requisites for them. Indeed the common discontent with our own lot, arises from considering it as deficient in these requisites in comparison with that of others. We see our neighbours with their best looks, and made up as it were for company; but we cannot see, and not seeing cannot realize, that they have troubles and disquietudes, which differ from our own not in degree or nature, but only in their causes; and that grief, anxiety, and fear, in the same degree, are equally disagreeable, from whatever cause they spring. An event which brings neither to us, may bring each or all to another; but finding it difficult to conceive of an effect, which we have never known to follow the cause assigned, we are apt to doubt its reality. Man in good health is much more a laughing than a weeping animal, whatever bilious moralists may say to the contrary. The depressing passions are not easily excited; they are by no means permanent in their character, nor easily conceived of. In the presence of sorrow, we are more ready to feel a sort of restraint, than any real sympathy, while the influence of smiles and joy can seldom be resisted. In the characters above-

mentioned we feel that the cheerfulness is equally sincere and permanent in its nature, because arising from causes simple, common, and sufficient.

Almost the whole of the third volume is devoted to the arguments in favour of natural religion. These are stated and illustrated with great ability, and in so agreeable a manner, that we think they are likely to make the subject equally clear and attractive to many, who may have been deterred from the consideration of it by its dry and abstract nature. The wisdom of many solemn treatises is here condensed, and their darkness made light; and we believe that very few books can be found in which more is said to the purpose in an equal compass, on the immortality of the soul, particular providence, free-will, predestination, and materialism. It was with a feeling of disappointment that we found, that the subject of revealed religion was not to be touched by the same skilful and liberal hand.

The author is probably a clergyman, certainly a practised writer (for the style is highly finished), and one who has learned in the school of the world that wisdom which good sense and christianity alike inculcate; indeed piety and liberality and accurate observation of nature are among the most distinguishing characteristics of the work.

But the studies of the writer have not been confined to the book of nature only. There are every where marks of extensive reading, sometimes appearing in quotations, but oftener as well as more agreeably in allusions. Two English writers are evidently among his favorites; these are Sterne and Shakspeare. His familiarity with the former appears in his style, which sometimes strikes one almost as designed imitation. His partiality to the latter is evinced by the mottoes of his chapters, which are, almost without exception, from him.

We are loath to conclude our commendations of this work; and we hope that these have been set forth in such a manner as to make all our readers desirous of becoming acquainted with it. Whether we have well expressed our reasons for being pleased with it, or whether they will like it for the same reasons that we do, we know not; but sure we are that they will be pleased with it for some reason or other, and upon this we are ready to stake our credit for good judgment; and if any one read it from our recommendation, who would not otherwise have done so, he will have good reason to thank us.

For it is more than pleasing; it is instructive and improving. Whoever shall carefully peruse this work without learning, or at the least reviving, much that is valuable and profitable, must be much wiser than we were; whoever is not improved by it, must be much better. It is a fault with many books of a design somewhat similar to this, that they admit either directly, or, more commonly but quite as mischievously, in an indirect manner, that the performance of our duties is an irksome task, which only looks for its reward to another world. This is a noble, and to our deliberate reason, a sufficient motive. But it is not the only one, and others are to be found in immediate satisfaction and present happiness. And such is the constitution of man that the former is too often feeble, unless cherished by the latter. "Affections," often masters of reason as well as of passion, "sway it to what it likes or loaths." In the work before us, there is no such admission; and no such, we contend, is necessary.

Hitherto our opinion of this work has been general, but it would far exceed our limits to notice particularly the parts which seem likely to give most pleasure. This will in some measure be effected by an extract or two, in the selection of which we might be somewhat embarrassed where there is so much that is excellent. We shall therefore take them without much consideration; and if the reader shall decide that many better might have been chosen, he may possibly be right.

The following are specimens of the descriptive style.

"Evelyn Hall was not one of those houses seated in the recesses of a park, where a solitude is to be traversed before you approach its inhabitants. It rose (many people of *taste* said too suddenly) in the very village from which itself and its possesors had derived their names ever since the Conquest. Cottages lay scattered in all directions, with every one its little forecourt or garden, filled with sweet herbs, and interspersed with hollyhocks, poppies, and all the common cottage flowers. But among these, let it be recollected, is the rose. How benignant indeed seems the Creator, in thus rendering this sweet flower at once the most beautiful ornament of nature, and the cheapest and easiest of cultivation. I never see a rose at a cottage door, but I think it designed by Heaven itself, as the poor man's regale. *'Sua si bona norint.'* * * * *

"From the court the Bench adjourned to dinner; and, reader, if thou hast ever had the good fortune to feast thyself in the great room of a great inn in a county town, enlarged by three or four rooms being thrown into one, for the purpose of giving am-

ple space to 'their worships,' thou wilt figure to thyself the glories of the George, in its triumph over the Fountain.

These two great powers had struggled for pre-eminence for half a century; and each with alternate and temporary success. Many, indeed, had been the painful discussions held by the nobility, gentry, and reverend clergy of this far-famed county, as to the respective merits of these powerful rivals; though it was generally observed, that, according as Whigism or Toryism prevailed in the riding, the feasting was held to be best at the one or the other.

A few honest pilgrims, indeed, there were, who were of neither of these parties, but above them both. They were your philosophers in politics, in other words, your levellers; who, in their love for equal rights and radical reform thought that the aristocracy of inns ought to be opposed, like all other aristocracies, and that the meanest pot-house in the borough ought to be supported as well as they. They therefore poisoned themselves at the Rose, the Catharine Wheel, and at the Blue Posts, from pure love of their country, rather than favour those who had the impudence to insult the rights of man, by holding their houses out as inns for gentlemen, and supplying their customers with the best of every thing

Be it understood, however, that these inferior places found no supporters among the company which I have introduced to the reader; who, though they were radically divided as to the above-mentioned superior powers, united in resolving, that one or the other should be the happy seat of refreshment for the tired magistrates of the riding, in quarter sessions assembled.

It is not necessary to say more on this subject, important as it is, nor to tell the reader how it happened, that the George at present had got the upper hand.

It is sufficient that it cost one doctor of laws, three masters of arts, and two baronets, two years' painful and preserving struggle, to accomplish this momentous revolution; which, after all, had perhaps never been effected, if, in addition to a continued flow of success to the British arms abroad, the beef at the Fountain had not, during three quarters of a year, been, by the confession of all, too littled corned.

The landlord of the successful sign, in a new coat of second cloth, with old silver buttons newly brightened, upon which was impressed the image which his sign professed to represent, had now twice announced that the greatest part of the dinner smoked upon the table, and that they only waited the approach of the chairman, to take up the fish; and this message was twice whispered to the chair, through their worships on the right hand of the court, (and in fact, had produced the instant departure of their said

worships, in regular succession, to the no small annoyance of their worships on the left,) before the chairman thought proper publicly to announce the happy tidings.

This occasioned a considerable heart-burning; for the favoured ones on the right hand, who were first entrusted with the secret, and had thus obtained the best places at the table, were almost all government men, who had naturally got together on the bench; while the unlucky party, who had as naturally adhered to one another on the other side, glorified themselves in the name of Reformers.

Now though the chairman was the most equitable of men, and had delayed promulgating the important secret disclosed to him from no other reason than that he was just at that moment in the act of finishing his charge to the jury, on which the imprisonment and whipping of John Hodges, for stealing turkeys, materially depended—yet, as he was shrewdly suspected of being less unfavourable to ministers than he *had* been, and the landlord who had brought the message, and the clerk of the peace who had forwarded it, were notorious Tories—nothing could persuade the opposite party (whose profession, indeed, was systematic suspicion) that this was any other than a *foul* conspiracy, to use undue influence in favour of the friends of government, against the rights of the people."

In the following the reader of Sterne is easily traced.

"At this moment Jenkins appeared.

'Not now, my good friend,' said the refined master, 'I am at present too much at my ease to interrupt it with trash.'

'No!' persisted he (gently pushing the steward out of the room, and coming back to his chair, as if he had done a great feat), 'such tranquillity, after such a storm, shall not be ruffled again by my own fault.'

The door, in closing upon Jenkins, seemed to close upon all that Tremaine could fear, and left him in possession of all he professed to wish for himself.

Now this is a possession of an extremely doubtful nature, and may, like many other possessions, be turned to good or bad account; or, like the talent in the parable, to no account at all, according to the skill, knowledge, and capital, the good or bad management of the owner. Sometimes a fortune is spent upon it, and yet the property is never the better, nor the master the richer; the recipient, indeed, is often like a quicksand, on which time, labour, and materials are all bestowed, without its being made capable of growing one single blade of grass, but all is sullen, and dry, and withered, so that a hungry goat or ass will scarcely browze upon it.

Sometimes it is a web, that may be wrought into a beautiful gossamer fineness, equal to receiving the most splendid dye, and fashioned into a thousand graceful folds, but, from its very texture too flimsy for use, and tearing at a touch.

It is only when it is the growth of a sound and mellow soil, or by incredible pains in its cultivation, that this equivocal possession called self, flourishes. Nature and art then seem to go hand in hand together, the former being always the principal, the latter only the subordinate agent, in bringing it to perfection.

To which of these three classes the self of Tremaine belonged, the reader may perhaps be able to determine as well as we could for him.

He was certainly not of the first—as little, perhaps of the last; and to have compared him to the middle one, would certainly have been to do him injustice. Be that as it may, he was at this moment not so much disappointed as usual, in the enjoyment of his possession; a fillip seemed to have been given to his spirits, and from the horrors he had just experienced, is was astonishing how happy he felt.

The truth is, he had been sufficiently uncomfortable abroad, to be glad that he was at home again; and this, I believe, goes to the bottom of the whole question.

'Souse him in cold water'—said the sensible physician of a rich man, on whose case he was consulted: 'or roll him in the mud, or overturn his post-chaise!'

'Throw but a stone, the giant dies,' said another sage, who was a poet, or at least a versemaker—'it is nothing but hyp—he has got the spleen.'

'Then send him to Ireland,' says a third; 'or round the world,' cries a fourth; 'or get him on a committee of the House of Commons,' suggests a fifth; 'or fall in love,' adds a sixth.

Strange! that with so many remedies, this plaguy disease I just now mentioned should be suffered to remain a moment in this fair isle!

It is not the absence of a good we covet, that moves this devil within us; but sheer uneasiness, when all we covet is gained.

Yet who shall say, that this uneasiness is not forced upon us for wise purposes—that the will may be exercised, and liberty enjoyed?

If the reader will not take my word for this, he may find it in Mr Locke's famous chapter upon power, liberty, and necessity, under the head of Volition.

'But who ever heard of introducing Locke to the readers of a novel!'

'A novel! I did not know I was writing one.'

'May we venture to inquire, then, what you *are* writing?'

'As I hope for readers, I intended it as a treatise of moral philosophy.'"

The following is a specimen of the dialogue.

"By this time they had joined the doctor, who was sitting on a bench, with his eyes following his black subjects through a thousand airy circles; and his ears seemingly delighted with what struck Tremaine as a horrible noise.

After the first salutation, 'Well, papa,' said Georgina, smiling, 'have you bought your bust?'

'No, my dear, I have not.'

'I really thought so,' returned she, and her smile turned into a laugh; 'I even said to Mr Tremaine, that although you went on purpose for it, you would come back empty-handed.'

'You are at least a true prophetess; but why did you prophesy?'

'I guessed.'

'Well, then, why guess?' quoted Evelyn goodhumouredly.

'That you might have the pleasure of another ride for it to-morrow.'

'My girl knows me well,' said the delighted father. 'If the weather is fine, and my mare carries me as well as to-day, I shall, I dare say, overcome my objection, and return for the bust to-morrow.'

'And pray what was the objection?' said Tremaine with curiosity.

'I thought it a shilling all too dear,' answered Evelyn.

'A shilling! and with six or eight miles there and back, is it possible you can have hesitated for a shilling?'

'Even so,' said Evelyn, coolly; 'nay, what is more, upon second thoughts, I think the thing cheap.'

'Then why not have bought it?'

'I did not think so at the moment, and it was but going again.'

'Good heavens!' said Tremaine in a sort of triumph, 'is this the value which you men of method put upon your time? To what must you practical people, after all, be reduced, when a trumpery piece of plaster, or perhaps a tea-cup, costs two journeys and a great deal of calculation, in a very wise head too, to get it.'

'And very well bestowed,' answered Evelyn, 'for I assure you I have got already all I intended by it, and that was not a little.'

'For heaven's sake, what?—'

'I got rid of the spleen.'

'I told you so,' observed Georgina.

'But I thought you never had the spleen?' retorted Tremaine.

'Not often—but I cannot help my constitution, which generates

bile ; and all I have for it, is to understand and cure its defects. I felt growing out of humour from a two-days' laziness ; and therefore endeavour to *make a little business*, in order to be obliged to ride. The remedy has done wonders already ; and to complete my cure, I came to my friends, the practical philosophers here.'

Just at these words, the rooks, at a seeming signal from a distant sentinel who was flying aloof, became particularly clamorous, till all flew off in several divisions to a neighbouring field, where they landed, and seemed (having first again planted sentinels around them) engaged in busy conclave, which lasted several minutes.

'I would give something to make them out,' said Evelyn.

'And I to make you out,' observed Tremaine, 'for in truth, such a compound of wisdom and trifling (excuse me) I never knew.'

'Why, the trifling of a wise man is always respectable you know,' said the Doctor ; 'I only wish you would make out your first proposition, and prove my wisdom. But suppose this a mere bagatelle ; one of the most acute of understandings once relied for happiness upon his famous maxim of *vive la bagatelle*. Another, almost as shrewd, and full of wit and high breeding, spent at least an amused life, professedly in trifles. It is at least as good as counting the waves, after the manner of Cicero, when he was out of humour, like other patriots, because the state would not do as he would have it,'"

We observed that the passages from Shakspeare were occasionally misquoted ; but this is possibly the error of the printer, and we therefore pass it by.

Reform of Harvard College.

[Continued from page 95.*]

The argument to prove that non-residence was, in the intention of the founders, permitted to the English fellows, drawn from frequent instances of non-residence, proves too much. We are told, for instance, that Sir William Jones, though a fellow at Oxford, remained in the temple for years, studying law. But the statutes of his college required him to study divinity, and in

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* *Erratum.*—In our article on this subject, in the last number of the Gazette, p. 93, fourth line from the bottom of the text, for "University College," read "New College."

due time take orders at Oxford. He was not only studying law, but, as he owns himself, was, at that period of his life, a sceptic. Does dispensation go so far? Again, we are informed in Mr Ticknor's pamphlet, that a gentleman, many years resident in Maine, has continued a fellow, in the constant receipt of his stipend as such; and that there is a professor in the University of Virginia, who was elected to a fellowship with a large income, after it was known he was going to reside in the United States. Now if the rules admit of one fellow living in Maine or Virginia, it does not appear why they might not all cross the Atlantic, by virtue merely of a dispensation from residence. Whether such instances can be quoted, as illustrating the nature of fellowships in their original intention, and not rather as very glaring cases of what the Quarterly Review calls a "defeat of the founder's object," we need not say.

Farther, it is maintained, in a note to Mr Ticknor's pamphlet, not only that the fellows may be non-resident, but that

"They lose *no* rights by non-residence,—that when any important business is to be transacted, notifications are sent to the non-residents, that they may come to the meeting and exercise their powers. This they often really do. Indeed, in some instances, it is inevitable, that the non-residents should act. Take the case of Trinity Hall, Cambridge. This corporation consists of a master and twelve fellows. But for many years, and I believe, for many generations, the master and ten of the fellows have been constantly non-resident. The consequence is, that non-residents *always* receive notice when business is to be transacted; and, *de facto*, important affairs of this corporation are frequently transacted at meetings held in London, where the master and a majority of the fellows reside."

And now for the ample inference from this solitary alleged case. "Of course, the non-resident fellows in the English colleges have just as much control and power over their respective institutions as the non-resident fellows of Harvard College, and the argument founded on an opposite statement of facts entirely fails."

We have quoted this statement at length, because this case of Trinity Hall, and those of the fellows of English Colleges now actually resident in Maine and Virginia, are the new facts introduced by Mr Ticknor into this discussion. We would remark then,

First. That it is declared by the Quarterly Review, in a

passage adopted by Mr Ticknor as expressing some of his own views, that non-residence is a "breaking in upon the rules," a "defeat of the object of the founders" of the fellowships. This is all the memorialists ever contended for.

Secondly. This non-residence is avowedly but a *dispensation.* It is not asserted that the laws prescribing residence are repealed. Where those laws were part of the foundation, there is of course no power to repeal them, unless expressly given, which has been alleged only of one college; and in strict law the fellowships are forfeited, because this dispensation "defeats the object of the founder." No principle in law is more familiar than the destruction of a Corporation "by the forfeiture of its charter through negligence or *abuse* of its privileges, in which case the law judges that the body politic has *broken the condition* on which it was incorporated, and thereupon the corporation is void."*

It is not alleged that the Statutes, as well of Trinity Hall, as of the Colleges to which the non-resident fellows in Maine and Virginia belong, do not prescribe residence. They probably do; nor can any use be made of these examples, till the statutes of the founder, and the law dispensing from them, are cited. Till this is done, we are the prey to all manner of misconception; as when Sir W. Jones, a lawyer, professing unbelief of Christianity, is cited as an instance of non-residence, and turns out to have been on a foundation, requiring the fellows to study divinity and take orders.

Thirdly. The statement concerning Trinity Hall is contradictory. It is said that the master, and ten out of twelve fellows, are non-resident, (leaving only two out of the thirteen, of which the corporation consists, resident); and that consequently, "non-residents *always* receive notice, when business is to be transacted." But the same sentence goes on to say that, "de facto, important affairs of this corporation are frequently transacted at meetings held in London, where the master and a majority of fellows reside." In this case, of course, the *residents* must receive notice to come to London and do College business. Besides, is it conceivable that a minority of two in a Corporation of thirteen should, by any other than gross abuse and connivance, be left at Cambridge with power to call meetings, on notice to the non-resident majority?

* Blackstone, I. 485.

Lastly. If these things are so, (and that they are, ought not to be admitted without express authority,) they are in gross violation of the Statute and Common Law of the English Colleges. To prove this, we will quote two competent authorities. The first is Dr Brown,* a lawyer and civilian of eminence. Treating expressly on the topic, he says, "As to discipline, the particular mode of it being ordained and regulated by the Statutes of each College, our principal inquiry must only be how, in general, it is to be enforced; and here, besides the ordinary power vested in the *immediate and resident* governors of the Colleges, there is incident to every College, and indeed to every Corporation, an extraordinary and visitatorial power." This is express to the point, that all the control, not visitatorial, is exercised by the immediate and resident governors.

But Dr Ayliffe, a civilian repeatedly cited with deference by the gentlemen who spoke against the Memorial last winter, is very full. Let it be remembered that he wrote expressly on the organization of Oxford.† He says

"All collegiate acts ought to be sped and executed by consent of the fellows, given in common assembly, and not singulariter or separately."

"In calling together these assemblies, these things are to be observed, viz. 1st, There must be due notice and premonition given to the fellows, in order to their meeting together." "2dly, The time of assembling ought to be proper and seasonable for the dispatch of business, as in the day and not in the night-time, for the fellows are not obliged to meet for this end at *all hours*, the night-time being proper for sleep and not for business; nor are they bound to appear upon conventions at *the usual times of meals*. 3dly, The *place*, where the assembly meet, ought to be considered, *which ought to be within the precincts of the College*, and there too in the public places thereof, as in the common hall, chapter-house, and the like; and not in private chambers, &c. unless it be upon necessary and emergent occasions not concerning the whole body. 4thly, The ordinary and usual method of calling them together, after due notice given, ought to be observed and followed, as by the tolling of a bell, the sound of a trumpet, &c. And if any member shall wilfully or obstinately refuse to appear in the assembly after such notice and summons given, he may be punished for his contu-

* Lectures on Civil Law I. 155.

† Ancient and Present State of Oxford, II. 14, 15, 16.

macy, *either by the subtraction of commons*, or by some other statutable method." It will be observed that Dr Ayliffe is not speaking of the customs of any single college, but of general academic usage. His authority is decisive.

There is one more point bearing on the subject of residence, which we will here touch, viz. that the fellowships were originally foundations, not for teachers but for learners; that in the ancient university charters they are included under the word *scholares*; that in Christ Church, the principal college at Oxford, they are called *students*. This, with a good deal more, was urged in the discussion last winter, and is revived by Mr Ticknor, to prove, against the Memorial, that the fellows could not have been intended to be *teachers*. But how does this bear on the point of residence? Mr Ticknor appears to have felt the incongruity of the two arguments, and has endeavoured to avoid it, by stating the object of the founders in giving stipends to a fellow to be, in order that "he may have leisure to acquire knowledge, *wherever he may be*." We will not stop to urge that this is contradictory to the general admission, that non-residence is a dispensation, or as the Quarterly Review calls it, "a defeat of the Founder's object." But let us only regard the evident impossibility of the thing, that halls and colleges should be built and endowed, with foundations for learners, "*ad studendum et orandum*," and yet that the persons on these foundations should not be required, nay not intended, to live there. Wherefore, then, the buildings?—the halls for assembly, the chambers for residence, the refectory for dieting? These accommodations are now, it is true, used for the pupils; but we are told that this is an innovation; that originally the fellows were the students, and in some colleges are still called so; and yet, in another portion of the argument, we are assured that their stipends were appointed to support them—*not* within these buildings, especially erected for their use, where, in the words of Blackstone, they "might read, pray, study, and perform scholastic exercises *together*,"—but to support them "wherever they might be," in London, in Maine, and in Virginia.—But the truth is, though the foundations were for students, they were for students of different ages and degrees of proficiency; and generally, though not always, were in name distinguished into fellowships and scholarships. The older, though still students, were competent to teach the younger, and the right to teach depended on the particular degree taken. The bache-

the enacting clause, it means something totally different? The memorialists did not argue (as was charged on them), that the word Fellow, *of itself*, meant any thing. Such a proposition would have been senseless. The meaning of all words is ascertained by their use and connection. And the memorialists contended, and, as we think, have proved, that the word fellow, before the charter of 1650, had a determinate meaning, ascertained by the usage of the College; the acts of the Overseers, of the Court, of the Commissioners of the Colonies, of the Registry of deeds, if there was one so early, and on the books of the treasurer;—and in this meaning of the word it is used in the preamble to the charter.

Several legislative acts followed the charter, at short intervals. In 1652, a contribution was recommended by the Court, for "the *maintenance* of the President and *certain* Fellows;" because, though the number was fixed at *five* in the charter, it was free for the court to alter the number, whenever they chose, and free for the Overseers to distribute the contributions as they chose. In 1653 two thousand acres of land were granted for "the more comfortable maintenance and provision of the President, Fellows, and Students." In 1653, a commission was raised to inquire into the state of the college stock, in reference to the yearly maintenance of the President and Fellows, to "examine what has been paid, and disbursed either for buildings, repairing, or otherwise paid or reserved annually, for the maintenance of the President, Fellows, and other officers," "to consider what number of Fellows may be necessary for carrying on the work of the College, and what yearly allowance they shall have, and how paid;" in order that the Court, if needful, might contract or enlarge the number, as they did in 1692, 1697, to the Corporation, and in 1690, 1780, and 1810, to the Overseers. At the close of the same year, on the return of this commission, the court ordered the proceeds of the public contribution to be "for the maintenance of the President, Fellows, and other necessary charges of the College, and the several yearly allowances to the President and Fellows to be proportioned, *as the said Overseers of the College shall determine.*" In 1654 a yearly grant of one hundred pounds for the behoof and maintenance of the President and Fellows "to be distributed between the President and Fellows, according to the determination of the Overseers of the College." In like manner, several private grants are on record; one of which gives a piece of real

estate to "the President and Fellows" of the said College, as long "as they *profess and teach* the knowledge of God's holy word," &c. Now how is this mass of evidence met, we will not say answered? By alleging that the word *fellow* had, at this time, two totally different meanings, changing from one to the other, not merely as used in public acts and private grants; but from year to year, in the doings of the General Court; nay, from line to line, in the same instrument. So far has this been pushed, by creating a new kind of fellows for every occasion in which the argument of the memorialists must be met, that *four* different sorts of *fellows* have been imagined in our infant College, viz. persons who were fellows *alone* of the Corporation; those who were simply teaching fellows; thirdly, those who were fellows in both senses; fourthly, those who were fellows in neither, a kind of inexplicable *tertium quid*, or rather *quartum quid*, who are inferred to have existed from "an entry of the 6th of May, 1650," that is, previous to the charter. We might argue much at length against such a plan of interpretation, but we will make one observation, which entirely overthrows it,—which *demonstrates* its incorrectness. Let it be remembered then, that the proposition that we would disprove is, that the fellows, for whose maintenance this public and private provision was made, were merely titular fellows, not the members of the Corporation, who were intrusted with the management of the funds and the appointment of salaries. Were this proposition correct, we should find, of course, that the distribution of the funds for the maintenance of the teaching fellows would have been left to the corporate fellows, this being a leading object of the incorporation. Now instead of that, it is expressly left to the Overseers. Is it conceivable that, if between the teaching fellows and the Overseers there had been another body, incorporated expressly to manage the funds and apportion the salaries of the officers, the Court, who had just created that body, would now have robbed it of its functions, and given them to the Overseers? It is not conceivable.

But we will state this case a little more strongly. The *name* is a very important thing in a Corporation. It is "the very being of it, without which it could not perform its functions."* *President and Fellows* is the name given in the charter to the Corporation of Harvard College. No gift for the

* Gilbert cited by Blackstone I. 474.

maintenance of the President and Fellows, could legally be applied to the maintenance of any other persons (whether called fellows or not), than the persons who composed the Corporation, called the President and Fellows. And even if a bequest or grant were made intentionally for some other sort of fellows, and yet were inadvertently expressed to be for the maintenance of the President and Fellows of the College, the latter, and no one else, would take. Now when we see the court in 1650 incorporating the President and Fellows, and in 1653 and 1654 making grants for the maintenance of the President and Fellows, it can only be that Corporation, which is to be maintained; and when we add that the Overseers, (and not the Corporation, as would have been the case, had another kind of fellows been the object of the grant,) are directed to apportion it among the President and Fellows, we really cannot see how any thing could be added to the strength of the argument.

But the memorialists contended that in the terms of the enacting clause, it was prescribed that the Fellows must reside; for it is said, the College *at* Cambridge shall *be* a Corporation of seven persons. Mr Ticknor rejoins to this argument, that it implies that the President and Treasurer are bound to residence, which "I believe," says he, "is by no means insisted on in the Memorial." It is not insisted upon; we believe not mentioned. But residence is unquestionably obligatory on both those officers, as well as on the fellows. When in 1706, the Fellows of the College petitioned to have the election of President Leverett confirmed, they added the prayer "that according to the ancient rules of their house, the future heads of the College may be resident." There is no other rule preserved among the ancient college laws, than what the charter contains, which binds the President to residence; and it is undoubtedly this which is referred to. "But," says Mr Ticknor, "this argument, whatever it implies, is simply a mistake in point of law. Nothing is better settled than that a Corporation, like that of Harvard College, has no place of commorancy although the Corporators may have," and he cites in proof, 2 Mass. Rep. 544. The case in 2 Mass. Rep. referred to, is the County of Lincoln *vs.* Isaac Prince; and it might admit a doubt, whether the County of Lincoln be "a Corporation like that of Harvard College," to such a degree of similarity, as to make the law equally applicable to both. But what the memorialists are supposed to have been igno-

rant of by "simple mistake," is the very principle, on which the argument rests; an argument of which Mr Ticknor has wholly mistaken the drift. The charter establishes two things; one, that the College is at Cambridge, the other, that the Corporation of seven persons is the College; consequently this Corporation must be at Cambridge. Now the law regards a corporation, as such, to be immaterial, incapable alike of residence and non-residence; and it no more permits a corporation not to reside than it enjoins it to reside. What then follows, and how is the charter to be fulfilled, which fixes the College at Cambridge, and declares the Corporation of seven persons *to be* this College at Cambridge? Of course, these Corporators must be at Cambridge; and expressly to meet such a requisition, the law, in its wisdom, provides that though corporations have not, corporators may have, a place of commorancy; and this is precisely, what the Memorial contends for, that the Fellows, that is, the Corporators, were held to reside. Of the residence of the Corporation, not a word is said in the Memorial. The case of the Charter of Dartmouth College, which Mr Ticknor quotes as "singularly in point," fails in the very point of supposed resemblance. That Charter provides only that the Corporation shall be *in* the College, and usage allows us to speak of a Board as existing *in* an institution, without reference to locality. In other words, the particle *in* by no means exclusively imports material or local presence in. The Medical School in Harvard College is in Boston. But if it were enacted that the Medical School at Boston should be the College at Cambridge, it would be a great absurdity; for it could not be at one and the same time, the School in Boston and the College in Cambridge. It is certainly competent to a legislative body, by some form of words or other, to enact that the members of any given corporation shall reside in any given place. The question is, whether this is done, by enacting that they shall be a society in such a place. When "the College" is spoken of as a body of persons, the word *society* might of course be substituted. Let us substitute it, in the charter, and read, "The literary society at Cambridge *shall be* a corporation of seven persons." Can any words more simply prescribe that these seven persons shall be at Cambridge? Can they be the literary society there, if they are not there?

[*To be continued.*]

MISCELLANY.

JOURNAL OF A TOUR IN THE INTERIOR OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

[CONCLUDED.]

LEAVING Orangeburg on the 19th, we arrived at Columbia, the seat of government of the state, the same day. The situation of this place is most delightful, being an elevated spot commanding a beautiful prospect of the surrounding country. I was informed by a gentleman in Orangeburg, that on a very clear day it could be seen from the road at the distance of seventeen miles; however, the atmosphere being hazy, we did not discern it. The road we travelled over this day was alternately hill and dale, and notwithstanding the great quantity of rain which had fallen, was in excellent order. This is called the *middle country*. It presents a pleasant appearance and the inhabitants do not look pale and sickly like those of the low country. The next day it was our intention to examine the town, but we were prevented by the rain from having more than a cursory view of the College, the Asylum for the deaf and dumb, and the water-works. We left Columbia the next day and proceeded a few miles into Newberry a little above the Dutch Fork. A country friend related the following anecdote, which occurred at the last mentioned place, and as it may tend to illustrate the cautious character of the Dutch, or rather the descendants of them, I will give it to you. A very honest man whose personal appearance was not much in his favour, having business of importance to transact in Spartanburg, was making the best of his way thither through this section of the country. A water course lay in his way so much swollen by the rain as to render crossing extremely dangerous. The cautious Dutch advised him not to attempt crossing, until the waters had run down, at the same time pointing out the disastrous consequences which would ensue if he did. Their arguments, however, had no effect; he was determined to make the attempt, and accordingly in a foolhardy manner drove his horse in, and upon reaching the swimming point, the rapidity of the current verified the predictions of his sage advisers, by sweeping down the horse and wagon; the wheels of which became entangled among some sunken logs, where he must have been drowned, but for the timely aid rendered by his phlegmatic friends. To stare danger thus in the face, could only, in their opinion, be the act of a criminal flying from justice, for were he an honest man, he would have waited for the receding of the waters. Their zeal for the support of the laws induced them to search him, and the sum of seventy

dollars was found concealed in the lining of his hat; this confirmed them in their suspicions, and it was agreed by all, that he should be carried before the justice for further examination, which was accordingly done. Mynheer Q. U. after gravely weighing all the circumstances, came to the same learned conclusion as the others, and forthwith committed him to jail; he was however released from this awkward proedicament, by the interference of one or two gentleman of the bar, who stated to those who had committed him, the consequences of violating the rights of a private citizen.

On the 21st we visited an old friend, Mr I. of Lawrens, with whom we spent several days, which we passed very pleasantly, in endeavouring to learn the character of the people. Each district of the upper country has several local divisions, which they denominate "settlements," among the members of which there exists a kind of mutual friendship. One neighbour allows the other to make use of his oxen, implements of husbandry, &c. without thinking, that he has dispensed an obligation, whilst the other receives them as if they were his own. Corn, bacon, and flour, are lent in the same manner, to be returned when convenient for the borrower. Mr I. who settled at this place some years ago, was requested soon after his arrival, to lend his cross-cut saw, this he refused to do unless he received a proper compensation, which of course was not given. Some time after, having occasion to grind an axe, he sent to the very man to whom he had refused the use of his saw. The man not yet having forgotten the affair of the saw, returned for an answer that he could not unless paid. This had the desired effect; Mr I. was ever after a very obliging neighbour.

On sunday I rode to church in company with several ladies and gentleman on horse back, for the ladies as well as the gentlemen are very expert equestrians. To me it was a novel spectacle, to behold two or three hundred horses, as I suppose, tied to the swinging limbs of the trees around the meeting. Part of the congregation having entered the church, it was found too small to contain the whole, and it was thought most expedient to withdraw to the woods. This arrangement was accordingly made, the benches being removed and placed in order before the preacher's desk, which was nothing more than a piece of rough oaken board, the ends being inserted into two trees. The ladies occupied the seats nearest the stand, the men the next, and, lastly, the negroes accommodated themselves with logs or the roots of trees, while some stretched themselves on the ground, leaning on their elbows. Service commenced a few minutes before twelve and ended at four, during which time two sermons were preached. At the end of the first the congregation was dismissed for a few minutes. The celebration of the Lord's Supper succeeded the second,

the whole ceremony being conducted in a solemn and impressive manner. The table was a long, wide board covered with a white cloth, at each side of which as many of the communicants as could conveniently sit, took their places; when these had gone through with the ceremony, others did the same, and so on till all had partaken.

I have picked up a few of the local expressions which abound there, and will set them down for your amusement, as you are probably unacquainted with many of them. The answer to almost every question is prefaced with the word *well*; as, "*Well*, I don't know." *Reckon* is used exactly as *guess*, except now and then to signify assent, when it signifies *yes*. *Prime* when used as the adjective means best, excellent, superior; as, "This is a *prime* horse;" it is also used as an adverb; as, "This apple tastes *prime*;" "I feel *prime*," meaning I feel well. *Mighty* is used in the superlative degree, and without any reference to power or greatness; as, "This water is *mighty* little deeper than that;" here the speaker evidently means *very*; "Your saddle is a *mighty* bad one; so that *mighty* means *very*, and nothing like *power* or *greatness*. *Right smart chance* signifies a large quantity; as, "Here is a *right smart chance* of cabbages," meaning a great many. All kinds of stones, and even pebbles, are called *rocks*. *Toat* is used for the word carry; and the word *there* is frequently inserted after *them*; the following question put to me by a countryman, while I was engaged in selecting some minerals, will illustrate the three last examples:—"*Are you going to toat them there rocks to town, in your saddle bags.*" *Out* is placed before many of their words, and is used thus; "She can *outspell* any other," meaning that she could spell better. *Any how* and *no how* mean *at all*; as, "My horse won't plough *any how*," "I won't go *no how*." *Allow* always means *suppose*, as, "I *allowed* you had eggs for dinner." *Heap* signifies *much*; as, "Squirrels are a *heap* better than chickens." Thus you have a fair specimen of the provincial expressions used by the common people.

After leaving Mr I.'s we pursued our journey with an intention of reaching the mountains, but were prevented by my friend's horse getting lame when on the road to Greenville a few miles above Lawrens village. Under these circumstances it was deemed proper to return. Arriving the next day at Mr I.'s the lame horse was attended to with such skill as to enable us to pursue our route down the country. On getting comfortably housed in an excellent tavern in Newberry, we escaped being exposed to the merciless pelting of a hail storm, which occurred directly after. Leaving Newberry, we crossed Water's ferry and took the road through Lexington, stopping at a convenient stage. While standing at the door of this inn I observed a young man passing with a rifle

on his shoulder, on the end of which hung a handkerchief filled with provisions; and glad to have something to pass the time, I engaged him in conversation by asking him his business. He said he was going to attend a petty muster eleven miles off, and sixteen from his own residence; and as the parade would not take place before to-morrow he intended to go a part of the way that night, encamp in the woods, rise early, and finish his walk the next morning. The very thought of *walking sixteen miles*, and that, too, to attend a petty muster, would be enough to shake the resolution of our city young men. The day following I recollect passing a fire, near which I have no doubt this hardy son of the forest slept, as it is a general custom to make one on such occasions. The country through which we passed to-day is one of the most dreary I ever beheld; it appeared to be nothing but one immense *pine-barren*, extending for thirty or forty miles, with perhaps not even a dozen habitations in sight from the road. We again reached Orangeburg passing Bull and Caw-caw swamps, both of which terrified me exceedingly; however, I succeeded in passing them both, sustaining no other injury than that of filling my boots with water, notwithstanding I kept my heels at the greatest possible elevation. A poor wagoner was in a much worse condition, having his wagon "*stalled*," and himself and team in more than three feet of water; and by the violent attempts he made to extricate himself, seemed likely to remain so, until he could obtain other assistance. From Orangeburg I determined to make the best of my way to town, by taking the river road, to avoid a repetition of the Walnut Creek adventure. I reached Charleston the next day, my health improved, and my curiosity pretty well satisfied.

THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

VII. INTEREST.

The rate of interest is regulated by the demand there is for money; and the demand in a great measure depends upon the profit on the employment of capital.

The demand for money, however, is occasionally augmented by the want of it for the payment of debts, and the supply of consumption, whereby the rate of interest is for a time enhanced.

In proportion as the general circulating capital, of which money is a component part, increases, the profit on the employment of it diminishes; and as the profit on the employment of capital diminishes, the rate of interest diminishes. Therefore the perma-

the whole ceremony being conducted in a solemn and impressive manner. The table was a long, wide board covered with a white cloth, at each side of which as many of the communicants as could conveniently sit, took their places; when these had gone through with the ceremony, others did the same, and so on till all had partaken.

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nent abundance or scarcity of money, only lowers or raises the rate of interest, in proportion as its presence or its absence augments or reduces the quantity of the general circulating capital.

Whatever is paid for the use of money beyond the market-rate of interest, is paid as a premium to the lender to compensate him for the risk he runs, of not being repaid without expense and delay, or of losing his money altogether.

Laws limiting the rate of interest on loans, diminish competition among lenders, and raise the rate of interest in the market. The borrower, besides being obliged to pay this higher rate of interest, is also obliged to pay to the lender such an additional sum, as will cover the risk which the lender runs, of losing his money, by infringing the law.

Thus it seems that usury laws, instead of favouring and protecting those for whose benefit they were intended, namely, the needy, do, on the contrary, actually compel them to incur a much heaver debt to obtain the means of succour, than they would otherwise be required to do.

It is not only, however, as these laws aggravate the evil they were intended to correct, that their expediency is to be objected to, but upon other grounds they are still more objectionable.

They tend to diminish the force of moral obligation. They invite to acts of dishonour, baseness, and fraud ; and this by offering a discharge from debt as their reward. And thus they lead the unfortunate debtor from pecuniary embarrassment, to a state of moral degradation.

Further, when the profit on the employment of capital raises the market-rate of interest above the rate limited by law, it compels, in the transaction of business, to a very general evasion of the law. And in this respect, it is a question for legislators to determine, whether it be good policy to enact or retain laws of this nature, which, by accustoming the people to violations of law, tend to impair the respect wherein the laws generally ought to be held.

It is moreover a question, whether, instead of endeavouring to prevent the idle, the improvident, and the prodigal, by these laws, from parting with property which they know not how to use, it would not be better for society to leave them at liberty to transfer it to other hands, where it would be used productively to the public benefit.

This change of property, while it would promote the interest of the community on the one hand, might prove, to those who parted with it, a profitable lesson of experience on the other. It would lead them, through necessity, to a knowledge of the advantages of industry, providence, and economy ; and with this

knowledge, they would not be likely to require the interposition of usury laws for their protection.

These, as well as all other legislative enactments, which interpose obstacles to the punctual performance of ordinary contracts, entered into in prosecution of the common affairs of life, have the effect to produce distrust, diminish confidence, abridge credit, discourage industry, and with these to retard the progress of public prosperity and wealth.

VIII. PRODUCTION, USE, AND CONSUMPTION, DEFINED.

The results of production are products. Products are not *consumed*, while *in use*; they are consumed only when *by* use they are *annihilated*.

Wheat and wool are products. One is used for bread, and consumed in food; the other is used for cloth, and consumed in clothing.

Houses and household furniture are products. One is used for shelter, and the other is used for convenience.

The improvements of land are products, and used for profit or pleasure. In short, all things of a material nature, adapted by art and labour to consumption, use, or enjoyment, are products of industry and the results of production.

IX. PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY DEFINED.

Productive industry comprehends the exercise of talent, intelligence, invention, art, skill, dexterity, and labour, either in production, as in agriculture, the fisheries, manufactures, and the mechanic arts, or in the augmentation in the value of products, by the distribution and exchange of the transportable and circulating surplus, as in commerce.

The power of productive industry is measured by the quantities of its products in their relation to wealth, and not by their quantities in their relation to value; for the value of a product is increased by diminishing its relative quantity, whereas wealth is increased by the augmentation of the quantity of a product.

X. DISTINCTION BETWEEN PRODUCTIVE AND UNPRODUCTIVE LABOUR.

It is not easy in all cases to draw a distinct line between productive and unproductive labor nor is it of any practical importance that it should be done.

The following distinction may however be made between them. In private service, all labour, by which the exchangeable value of *material* objects is augmented, is productive labour; but that which adds nothing to the exchangeable value of material objects, notwithstanding it may be useful in other relations, is called unproductive labour.

In public service, all labour, which is employed to augment the utility of those objects, which come under the head of public property, is productive labour; whereas all other public labours, however important they may be to the public welfare, are nevertheless unproductive labours, in their relation to the production of wealth.

XI. OBJECTS OF PRODUCTION.

The objects of production are either perishable, and for immediate consumption; or more durable, and for present and future use and consumption. Those of the first kind are principally of agriculture and the fisheries; and those of the second, are mostly of manufacture and the mechanic arts. From the consumable products of this first department of industry, man principally derives his subsistence; in the more durable products of the second, he chiefly accumulates his wealth.

XII. DISTINCTION BETWEEN MANUFACTURE AND THE MECHANIC ARTS.

By the mechanic arts, is understood the various arts, in which the operations are *manually* performed by the aid of tools and machines of little cost, and such as are within the means of the mechanic generally to procure for himself, without the aid of the capitalist.

By manufacture, is understood those great productive operations of art, which cannot be effected without the assistance of large capitals; but by the employment of which, under the direction of skill, the powers of nature are brought through the medium of machinery to the aid of human labour, and made to perform its functions to such an extent, as greatly to augment production. And by means of this in the saving of labour, the costs of production are very considerably reduced, and the public supplied with the products, at a price reduced in a corresponding proportion.

H. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

THE LAST SONG OF THE GREEK PATRIOT.

One last, best effort now—
They shall not call us slaves—
These iron necks shall never bow
To barter for a hated life,
But we will tell in mortal strife,
What wrath a freeman braves—
A few short years, and we have known
The pride and joy—to live alone.

Our ancient land was free,—
We washed its stains in blood—
Again the hymn of Liberty
Rose from the high Athenian shrine,
And virgin hands did often twine,
In the dark olive wood,
Their garlands for the youthful brow,
Who taught the heathen Turk to bow.

These have been glorious days—
Let come what will, our fame
Is like the sun's eternal blaze,
And when they tell of Marathon,
And all the fields our fathers won,
They too shall name
Botzaris, and the few who died,
Victims of glory, by his side.

The world has told our doom—
'T is Liberty or Death—
The tree we planted must not bloom,
For Turk and Christian—all unite,
And royal hands our sentence write,
And yet our breath,
When trampled by the ruffian herd,
Shall never breathe one recreant word.

If we must die—then die—
And let the foul disgrace
Cling to their names eternally,
Who, when they had the power to save,
Doomed to a dark and bloody grave
A high, devoted race—
Awhile the sweets of life to know,
O God! and then to perish so!

But Freedom has one shore—
Would we could shelter there
The tender ones, we value more
Than life or fame—O! generous men,
Be with us, as ye long have been,
And we will share
All the poor fruit of toils and pains,—
Our hearts—our lives—perhaps, our chains.

Come, at this fatal hour,
Ye last of high-born souls;
Come—when the crushing weight of power
Has all but bent our necks to earth—
We will not shame our glorious birth;

Nor Turk, nor Hun controls
The heart that holds the Spartan fire,
The sacred relic of his sire.

We know, ye cannot fear—
We know, that ye are brave—
To us—your very name is dear—
O! by that name, and all its light,
We bid ye join the murderous fight,
To win and save—
O! come—if it be only time
To fall with us—in Death sublime.

P.

SONNET.

Why have ye lingered on your way so long,
Bright visions, who were wont to hear my call,
And with the harmony of dance and song
Keep round my dreamy couch a festival?—
Where are ye gone with all your eyes of light,
And where the flowery voice I loved to hear,
When, through the silent watches of the night,
Ye whispered like an angel in my ear?—
O! fly not with the rapid wing of time,
But with your ancient votary kindly stay,
And while the loftier dreams that rose sublime
In years of higher hope, have flown away,
O! with the colours of a softer clime,
Give your last touches to the dying day.

P.

MUSINGS

I sat by my window one night,
And watched how the stars grew high;
And the earth and skies were a splendid sight
To a sober and musing eye.

From heaven the silver moon shone down
With gentle and mellow ray,
And beneath the crowded roofs of the town
In broad light and shadow lay.

A glory was on the silent sea,
And mainland and island too,
Till a haze came over the lowland lea,
And shrouded that beautiful blue.

Bright in the moon the autumn wood
Its crimson scarf unrolled,
And the trees like a splendid army stood
In a panoply of gold!

I saw them waving their banners high,
As their crests to the night wind bowed,
And a distant sound on the air went by,
Like the whispering of a crowd.

Then I watched from my window how fast
The lights all around me fled,
As the wearied man to his slumber passed
And the sick one to his bed.

All faded save one, that burned
With distant and steady light;
But that, too, went out,—and I turned
Where my own lamp within shone bright!

Thus, thought I, our joys must die,
Yes—the brightest from earth we win:
Till each turns away, with a sigh,
To the lamp that burns brightly within.

H. W. L.

SONNET.

Look! how the young moon o'er the orange west,
Walks in her maiden purity!—she seems
Adorned in brighter, more alluring beams,
To flatter all that look the loveliest.
The wild breeze laps him to his halcyon rest,
Upon the dark blue waters—where the gleams
Of sheeting moonlight silver o'er his dreams,
Melting to love old ocean's heaving breast.
The stars are out, and beautiful are they,
Cold, but still beautiful; a crowded choir,
Harmonious in their silent minstrelsy!—
And I would fain with beating heart aspire
To their communion—but this weight of clay,
Clings to the soul, and mocks the vain desire.

R. D.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

An Oration pronounced at Middlebury, Vt. before the Associated Alumni of the College, on the Evening of Commencement, Aug. 17, 1825. By Nathan S. S. Beman. Troy. 8vo. pp. 40.

THERE is nothing in the moral aspect of our country, which we contemplate with more pleasure, than the universal diffusion of the means of education. In addition to the schools and academies, which are scattered through every part of our country, almost every state has, at least, one respectable college. The means of intellectual improvement are thus placed within the reach of every one, however narrow his resources. In the kingdoms of Europe, and particularly in England, a considerable fortune is necessary, to enable a person to acquire a liberal education. This evil has been so severely felt, that it now engages the attention of some of the most distinguished literary characters and statesmen of Great Britain. The new and interesting plan, on which they propose to establish a college in London, we published in a late number of the Gazette.

This Oration was delivered on the evening of Commencement, at Middlebury College in Vermont. A half a century has not elapsed since this state was a wilderness. Its growth in population and wealth have been truly astonishing; and the developement of moral and intellectual resources has kept pace with the rapid improvements of our common country. The pure breezes of her mountains, while they have given a healthy tone to the body, seem also to have imparted a corresponding vigour to the energies of the mind. Two colleges are established in the state; one in Burlington and the other in Middlebury. We know little concerning the latter, except that its reputation is good; but we are disposed to think well of an institution, which can number among its sons so fine a scholar as Mr Beman.

The subject of this oration is, as the author says, "to trace the connexion between Christianity and mental improvement—their respective and reciprocal influence—their intellectual and moral action and reaction upon each other—and their relations with individual and national character and elevation."

In pursuance of this plan, he combats the argument so often adduced by its enemies, that the Christian religion is unfavourable to the growth and developement of the intellectual faculties. He shows, conclusively, that from the very nature of Christianity, it must be propitious to the highest cultivation of the human mind. He refers to the schemes of heathen philosophy, which, except so far as they were modified by "fragments of revealed truth,

were calculated to obscure the intellectual vision, and to depress and enslave the human mind." He adduces some of the corruptions of Christianity—the ecclesiastical and political tyranny, which was for ages exercised by the Pontiff of the Roman Church, in support of his argument.

"This was a marble-hearted and an iron-handed despotism, which cut down every thing enlightened and liberal before it. It made war upon knowledge, and established and protected ignorance by law. To the truth of this remark, let the gray hairs of that distinguished astronomer and mathematician, Gallileo, subjoin their melancholy attestation. And in support of the same declaration, let the decrees of the Vatican, the cells, the racks, and gibbets of the Inquisition, and the erected stake, and the blazing fagot, utter their distinct and unequivocal voice."

The Christian religion and human improvement exert on each other a reciprocal influence. In the study of the Bible, the student needs all his erudition. Every thing that relates to oriental literature—to philology—to the governments and learning of the old world—to local customs—to topography—to national character, is called into requisition. The manner in which its doctrines are elucidated and its truths enforced, must always keep pace with the mental improvement of the age. We have an example given us in the scriptures, in which learning and talents and religion unite in forming the character of the same individual.

After describing the revolution in the condition of mankind, produced by the introduction of Christianity, Mr Beman next adverts to the influence of the Reformation; of its moving spirits, Luther, Melancthon, Zuinglius, and others, in awaking mankind from the slumber of centuries; in rousing them to the exertion and improvement of their faculties; and in pouring a flood of light on the moral darkness of the world. He takes a rapid survey of the nations of the earth, and contrasts the refinement and happiness of those where the blessings of Christianity are enjoyed, with the barbarism of others where it either does not exist, or has been corrupted by human inventions. He anticipates the time when Christianity shall be every where diffused, and civil and political liberty, and science and the arts, shall be spread through every nation.

A notice of the institutions of our own country, of her moral and political character, and of her rank among the nations of the earth naturally forms a part of the address.

"The character and institutions of this country, have already produced a deep impression upon the world we inhabit. What but our example has stricken the chains of despotism from the provinces of South America—giving, by a single impulse, freedom to half a hemisphere? A Washington here, has created a Bolivar there. The flag of inde-

pendence which has long waved from the summit of our Allegany, has now been answered by a corresponding signal from the heights of the Andes. And the same spirit, too, that came across the Atlantic wave with the pilgrims, and made the Rock of Plymouth the corner-stone of freedom and of this Republic, is travelling back to the East. It has already carried its influence into the cabinets of princes; and it is at this moment sung by the Grecian bard, and emulated by the Grecian hero."

Husband Hunting; or, the Mother and Daughters. A Tale of Fashionable Life. In two volumes. 12mo. pp. 276 and 282. Boston. 1825.

This book belongs, on the whole, to the *ancien régime* of novel-writing and cannot expect to be received with much favour by the present generation. We do not understand why it has been republished in this country, and should be sorry to believe that the republication can be a very profitable enterprise. The story is made up of materials which have been the property of novel-writers from time immemorial,—a miserly old relation, with good feelings under a rough exterior; a wicked, treacherous, and gay, deceiving friend; a dissipated mother, hunting husbands for her daughters; a languishing lady, a proud and cold, a satirical, and an innocent and lively one; two or three baronets, a lord and some military officers are put in motion according to rule, and the resulting situations varied according to the circumstances of the case; and it is rather a sad thing to observe the time and talent of a person of some ingenuity thus wasted in taking advantage of the common doctrines of permutation and combination to place in a new arrangement, what was never very valuable in any. We have neither space nor spirits to enlarge on this subject. In our various notices of poor novels we have had occasion to say, quite as much perhaps as will ever be read on this point. We speak ill of this book with the less hesitation, as it claims no forbearance on the ground of its origin, and dismiss it with the hope that few like ourselves will feel under any necessity of reading it through.

INTELLIGENCE.

SCHOOLS IN GREECE.

Learning is making rapid strides among the Greeks. Argos possesses a school, where the Homerian language is taught, with history, philosophy, and many other languages. A school on the Lancastrian system, established since the revolution, contains more than 200 scholars. The school at Hydra is about to be re-established;—and at Athens two schools exist, which though extremely large cannot contain near the number of pupils that arrive from all parts of the country.

ALPHABETS.

The English contains twenty-four letters; to which if we add J and V, consonants, there will be twenty-six. The French contains twenty-three;—the Hebrew, Chaldee, Syriac, and Samaritan, twenty-two each;—the Arabic, twenty-eight;—the Persian, thirty-one;—the Turkish, thirty-three;—the Georgian, thirty-six;—the Coptic, thirty-two;—the Muscovite, forty-three;—the Greek, twenty-four;—the Latin, twenty-two;—the Sclavonic, twenty-seven;—the Dutch, twenty-six;—the Spanish, twenty-seven;—the Italian, twenty;—the Ethiopic and Tartarian, each two hundred and two;—the Indian and Bengal, twenty-one;—the Buranese, nineteen. The Chinese have, properly speaking, no alphabet, unless we call their whole language by that name. Their letters are words or rather hieroglyphics, amounting to eight thousand.

NEW SCHOOL AT CHITENENGO N. Y.

Dr Yates, formerly a pastor of the Congregational Church in East Hartford (Conn.), since Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logic in Union College at Schenectady, has issued a prospectus of a *Polytechny* or a school to be established at Chitenengo, Madison Co. N. Y. The plan of the seminary embraces a liberal course of studies; and these are arranged in the following order; *first*, the sciences which call into exercise the perceptive powers; *secondly*, those which exercise the perceptive and reflective powers combined; *thirdly*, such as address themselves to the reflective powers exclusively. As we do not understand, precisely, what definitions Dr Yates would attach to the different powers of the mind, we can form no adequate idea of the correctness of his arrangement of studies with reference to those powers. But we are glad to see an attempt to fix the purpose of education upon its right ground. A mistake in the object, it is easy to perceive, leads to infinite mischief in the details.

The *acquisition of knowledge*, and especially *useful* knowledge, is the great purpose which all schools seem to have in view; and every thing is done with reference to it. Whereas it seems to us, that *the development and discipline of the mind* should be the principal concern in early education, and all studies should be arranged with reference to this. The amount of knowledge which can be acquired under the most favourable circumstances in any academical course of studies in this country, is but a trifle compared with a proper development and the healthy and vigorous action of all the intellectual faculties.

VARIETIES.

New Publications.—Our list of New Publications in this number of the Gazette contains fifty-two distinct works, which make, in all, sixty-five volumes.

Mécanique Céleste.—The Marquis de la Place, at a late sitting of the French Institute, presented the 5th volume of his Mécanique Céleste.

Scott's Novels.—Several of Sir Walter Scott's Novels have been

translated during the last year into the Russian, and one, Ivanhoe, into the Polish language.

John Paul Jones.—The European Magazine treats Mr Sherburne's "Life and Character of the Chevalier John Paul Jones," with great contempt; though the writer takes occasion to subjoin some very gracious remarks. "Having," says he, "in an unlucky moment taken up this volume we have made what we could of it; but in speaking of a very dull, and, at this time of day, very uninteresting book, we beg to be considered as entertaining no light or disrespectful opinion of the abilities of the Americans. Their advancing studies, improving talents, and rising genius are obvious to every unprejudiced mind; and their efforts, literary and other, will ever meet our encouragement and protection. In treating of this publication, we weigh the Americans of the last century, a people very distinct in moral and intellectual qualities from the race of the present. This is 'the third and fourth generation of them that hate' *not us*, neither do they merit our ill will or word." The writer cites *Tooke's* Life of Catherine II. for the following fact. "He (Paul) was brave at sea, though not by land, having refused to accept a challenge more than once, and was handsomely caned upon the Exchange at Philadelphia." [?]

Russian Periodicals.—The number of periodicals in Russia notwithstanding the severity of the censorship, has greatly increased within the last year.

Göthe.—The property of the whole of his works has been purchased from Göthe, by a great publishing firm in Germany, for the sum of 100,000 francs.

Segur's Russian Campaign.—In a second edition, of Mr Segur's work on the Campaign of 1812, he has brought forward proofs of certain statements made by him, which have been questioned.

Royal Press in France.—The King of France has issued a decree containing regulations for printing at the Royal Press a collection of the principal Oriental works, after the model of the great Byzantine collection and the compilation of the councils and historians of France.

University of Edinburgh.—The Professors have come to the determination that henceforth no candidate shall be admitted for examination for the degree of M. D. unless he has studied four years in college instead of three, as formerly; and that during that time he must attend to three new branches of medical science in addition to the nine hitherto taught, on all of which he must be examined, prior to graduation.

Works Projected.—The author of Valerius, Adam Blair, &c. is composing another novel; and a third series of Sayings and Doings is in preparation.

Athens.—Within the last four years, the glorious remains of Athens have suffered severely, in consequence of the struggle between the Greeks and the Turks; though they have been less defaced than might have been expected. That which has sustained the most injury, is the precious monument of Lysicrates called the Lantern. The Temple of Theseus has remained untouched. The Tower of the Winds has not suffered at all. The Parthenon has suffered some injury; but happily in the flat lateral walls of the edifice, of which the Turks who were be-

sieged demolished a part to get the lead used in fixing the iron cramps which hold the blocks together. The same thing happened to the Temple of Minerva Polias, otherwise called the Erectheum. The Propylea of the Acropolis are not damaged.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY.

Biography of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence. 8vo. Vol. 6. Philadelphia.

Memoirs of the Life of Richard Henry Lee, and his Correspondence with the most distinguished Men in America and Europe, illustrative of their Characters, and of the Events of the American Revolution. By his Grandson, Richard H. Lee, of Leesburgh, Va. 2 vols. 8vo. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

The Life of Mary Dudley, including an Account of her Religious Engagements, and Extracts from her Letters; with an Appendix containing some Account of the Illness and Death of her Daughter Hannah Dudley. Philadelphia. B. & T. Kite.

DRAMA.

The New-England Drama, in five Acts, founded on Incidents contained in the New-Elngand Tale. 1825. 12mo. pp. 72. Dedham. H. & W. H. Mann.

This work is the result of an operation upon the New-England Tale similar to what has frequently been applied to the Waverley Novels, and which the author of those novels has called *Terryfying*, from the name of the operator. The New-England Tale does not seem to us well adapted for this purpose, on account of the length of time occupied by the story, which is unfavourable to dramatic interest. We doubt whether the drama will answer for the stage.

EDUCATION.

An Introduction to Linear Drawing. translated from the French of M. Francœur, and adapted to the use of Public Schools in the United States. By William B. Fowle, Instructer of the Monitorial School, Boston. 12mo. pp. 64. Boston, 1825. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

Dufief's Nature Displayed in her Mode of Teaching Language to Man; being a new and infallible Method of acquiring Languages with unparallelled rapidity; deduced from the Analysis of the Human Mind, and consequently suited to every capacity. Adapted to the Spanish. By Don Mariano Velasquez de la Cadena, L. Hargous, Professor of Universal Grammar, and Don Manuel de Torres, Late Minister Plenipotentiary from the Republic of Colombia to the United States. 8vo. New-York.

An Examination of Mr Dufief's Philosophical Notions; with a Criticism upon his System and Mode of Teaching Languages. In Four Letters. By John Manesca, French Instructer. New York. 1825. pp. 32. 8vo.

The American Instructor, designed for all Common Schools in America. By Hall I. Kelly, A. M., Author of the "Instructor." 12mo. pp. 168. Boston. True & Green.

HISTORY.

History of the United States, from their first Settlement as Colonies, to the close of the War with Great Britain, in 1815. 12mo. pp. 336. New York. Charles Wiley.

A History of the United States of America, on a Plan adapted to the capacity of Youth. Illustrated by Engravings. By the Rev. Charles A. Goodrich. Fourth Edition. 12mo. pp. 316. Lexington, Kentucky. W. W. Worbley.

LAW.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Court, and in the Court for the Trial of Impeachments and the Correction of Errors of the State of New York. By Esek Cowen, Esq. Counsellor at Law. 8vo. vol. III. Albany.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Errors, of the State of Connecticut, prepared and published in pursuance of a statute law of the State. vol. IV. By Thomas Day, Esq.

MEDICINE.

The New England Journal of Medicine and Surgery. Vol. XIV. No. 4. for Oct. 1825.

The Medical Recorder. No. 32, for October, 1825. Philadelphia. James Webster.

A Treatise on the Medical and Physical Treatment of Children. By William P. Dewees, M. D. Lecturer on Midwifery, &c. 8vo. pp. 500. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The African Repository, and Colonial Journal. Vol. I. No. VII. Washington. Way & Gideon.

An Oration, pronounced at New Haven, before the Connecticut Alpha of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, September 13th, 1825. By James Gould. 8vo. pp. 31. New Haven. T. G. Woodward & Co.

Remarks on the Changes lately proposed or adopted in Harvard University. By George Ticknor, Smith Professor, &c. Second Edition. 8vo. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

An Impartial Examination of the Case of Captain Isaac Phillips, late of the Navy, and Commander of the United States Sloop of War Baltimore, in 1798. Compiled from Original Documents and Records, with the Proceedings upon his Application to be restored to his Rank in the United States' Navy. 8vo. pp. 119. Baltimore. B. Edes.

Love and Patriotism; or the extraordinary Adventures of Mons. Duportail, late Major General in the Army of the United States. Interspersed with many surprising Incidents in the Life of the late Count Pulaski. 12mo. pp. 108. Boston.

The Laughing Philosopher, or Fun, Humour, and Wit—being a Collection of choice Anecdotes, many of which, never before in print, originated in or about "The Literary Emporium." 12mo. Boston.

Sibylline Leaves and Wayward Criticisms. By Arthur Singleton, Esq. No. I. 12mo. pp. 24. Boston.

A Discourse delivered before the Society for the Commemoration of the Landing of William Penn, on the 24th of October, 1825. By G. I. Ingersoll, Esq. 8vo. pp. 36. Philadelphia. R. H. Small.

The Canadian Magazine and Literary Repertory No. XXIV. June. 1825. 8vo. Montreal.

This is a monthly journal. It contains reviews, original and selected miscellany, and poetry, together with a summary of domestic and foreign intelligence. The poetry is selected with much taste; we wish, however, that it suited the convenience of the editors to give us credit for what they take from our own pages.

A Lecture delivered at the Opening of the Medical Department of the Columbian College in the District of Columbia, March, 30, 1825. By Thomas Sewall, M. D., Professor of Anatomy and Physiology. 8vo. pp. 80. Washington, D C.

The author gives a history of the science of medicine and of the establishment of the different Medical Schools in the United States. And to the Lecture are attached the names of the faculties of the several institutions, and brief notices of some of the most distinguished physicians of our country, in the form of notes.

POETRY.

Chelys Hesperia, Carmina quædam Anniversaria, et alia, numeris Latinis sapphicis modulata, continens, cum Notis aliquot adjectis. Auctore S. Wilson, A. M. Lexingtoniæ. 1825. 8vo. pp. 23.

Poesas de Jose Maria Heredia. Neuva York. Behr & Kahl. 1825. 18mo. pp. 162.

King Caucus. A Poem, by Walter Wagstaff, Esq. 1825. 8vo. pp. 67. New-York. E. Bliss, & E. White.

This is a poem in the Hudibrastic measure, satirizing the Presidential Caucus which met with such a defeat on a late occasion. We were unable to understand all the allusions, and moreover our interest in the subject is not very vivid at present. The writer has certainly a turn for this kind of satire, and his poem, we think, would have enjoyed considerable popularity, had it been published a year or more ago; perhaps it may still be interesting to politicians.

POLITICS.

An Address delivered at the Dedication of the Town Hall in Worcester, Mass., on the second day of May, 1825. By John Davis. Worcester. 8vo. pp. 36.

Besides the local and temporary interest, which attaches to every performance of this kind, Mr Davis's address has a permanent value, as a historical document, for he has collected many facts in the early history of Massachusetts and particularly of the town of Worcester; and as an able political tract, for he has sketched the leading principles adopted by our ancestors, and stated some of the means by which they laid the deep foundations of our free institutions. In our perusal we marked several passages for quotation, intending this notice for another department of our work; but our narrow limits oblige us to confine ourselves to the following. It exhibits one of the most interesting features in the institutions of the New England States, and in a few of the other States in the Union. The influence of these small, and in many respects independent corporations, we believe, has seldom been duly estimated.

"Among the many institutions of our ancestors which are most happily designed to uphold and perpetuate a free government, was a division of their territory into small municipalities, which were invested with powers of high trust and importance. The support of public worship, public schools, and public highways devolved on them. The police of towns has, from the earliest settlement of the Commonwealth, been purely democratic. The people have always selected their officers from among themselves, and transact-

ed all their business in public assemblies. Aside from the influence and ascendency which are given to the sentiments of the people, by having the care of morals and of education, and the power of making provision for the same, nothing could be more happily devised to sustain and perpetuate a republican system, than the manner in which these municipal corporations are associated and do their business. Indeed, the whole male population of our country may be said to be bred at the altar of republicanism. Our earliest associations and habits of life are connected with our schools, our churches, and our town-meetings—all of which are regulated and provided for by the people, in public assembly. It is indeed most manifest that much of the good order which prevails, and much of the security we feel, depends on this political division into small communities. Many of the States, it is well known, are divided into small counties; but this, I apprehend, is a less efficient and more inconvenient mode of transacting public business."

THEOLOGY.

Family and Private Prayers, compiled from the Devotional Writings of Bishop Andrews, Bishop Ken, Bishop Wilson, Jeremy Taylor, Dr Hickes, and Dr Johnson. By the Rev. William Berrian, an Assistant Minister of Trinity Church, New York. 12mo. pp. 51. New York. E. Bliss & E. White.

A Discourse delivered before the Society for the Promotion of Christian Education in Harvard University, at its Annual Meeting, in the Church in Federal Street, Boston, on the Evening of the 28th of August, 1825. By John Brazer, Pastor of the North Church in Salem. 8vo. pp. 27. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

The Minister presenting his People to Christ. A Sermon; Preached at the Ordination of the Rev. William C. Fowler, as Pastor over the first Congregational Church and Society in Greenfield, Mass. August 31st, 1825. By Eleazar T. Fitch. 8vo. pp. 44. New Haven. T. G. Woodward & Co.

Literary and Evangelical Magazine. Vol. VIII. No. IX.

Canons for the Government of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America; being the Substance of various Canons adopted in General Conventions of said Church; Held in years of our Lord 1789, 1792, 1795, 1799, 1801, and 1804, &c. 8vo. pp. 43. New York. T. & J. Swords.

Attachment to the Redeemer's Kingdom; A Sermon Preached before the Prayer Book and Homily Society, in Christ Church, Baltimore, June 2, 1825. By the Rev. Stephen H. Tyng, A. M. Rector of Queen Ann Parish, Pr. Geo. Co. Md. 8vo. pp. 32. Georgetown D. C.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

The Latin Reader. Part second, chiefly from the fourth edition of F. Jacobs, and F. W. Doering. 12mo. pp. 162. Boston. Cummings Hilliard, & Co.

Rhetorica de Valero. 1 vol. 18mo. New York. 1825. Behr & Kahl.

We hope this book is not so lean as the title with which we have been favoured. It is a great misfortune, that we are obliged so frequently to print such fragments of titles as will hardly enable our readers to inquire for the books, if they should happen to wish for them.

La Découverte des Sources du Mississippi et de la Rivière Sanglante, par Beltrami. 1 vol. 8vo.

Deux mots sur des Promenades de Paris à Liverpool. 1 vol. 8vo.

Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education. By Elizabeth Hamilton. In two volumes. Third American Edition. Boston. Samuel H. Parker. 1825. 12mo. pp. 238 & 252.

We are glad to perceive that a third edition of this excellent treatise has been demanded by the American public. We have no room at present for an analysis of the work; and we regret this the less, because its merits seem to be already so well known. But we confidently commend it where it not particularly known, to all who are engaged in the education of the young; and especially to those heads of families, whose first and most anxious cares are the proper development of the faculties of their children's minds, and the proper cultivation of the affections of their hearts. Mr Parker deserves well of the American public for his efforts in bringing out so beautiful an edition. He is also publishing elegant 8vo. editions of the Waverley Novels and Edgeworth's Works; and has already, we learn, put to press, an edition of the former in 12mo, which is to be executed in a style equal to that of Mrs Hamilton's Letters.

A Practical Treatise on Rail-Roads and Carriages; showing the principles of estimating their strength, proportions, expense, and annual produce, and the conditions which render them effective, economical, and durable; with the theory, effect, and expense of steam carriages, stationary engines, and gas machines. Illustrated by four engravings and numerous useful tables. By Thomas Tredgold, Civil Engineer. New York. 1825. 8vo. pp. 183. E. Bliss, & E. White.

This volume contains descriptions of the different kinds of Rail-Roads used in England, estimates of the expense of constructing them, and statements of their advantages compared with canals. Mr Tredgold shows that the advantages are decidedly in favour of Rail-Roads, especially in an uneven country, on account of their offering a less expensive means for ascending and descending from one level to another. And the original expense of constructing them is but half that of constructing a canal. The former being estimated at £5,000 and the latter at £10,000 per mile. If this author may be relied upon, he sets at rest the project of connecting Albany with Boston, by means of a *Canal*.

Blair's Outlines of Chronology, Ancient and Modern, being an Introduction to the Study of History, for the use of schools. Hartford. S. G. Goodrich.

A Sermon on the Lord's Supper. By Andrew Kippis, D. D. F. R. S. S. D. 12mo. pp. 31. Salem. J. R. Buffum.

The Story of a Life. By the Author of "Scenes and Impressions in Egypt and Italy," "Recollections of the Peninsula," &c. 1 Vol. 12mo. pp. 452. Boston. Richardson & Lord.

The Tales of the Genii, translated from the Persian. By Sir Charles Morell, with Memoirs of the Author, 2 Vols. 18mo. New York. D. Mallory.

Memoirs of the Countess de Genlis, illustrative of the History of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries. Written by herself. Vol. II. 8vo. New York. Wilder & Campbell.

Babylon the Great, a Dissection and Demonstration of Men and Things in the British Capital. By the Author of "The Modern Athens." 2 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

The Troubadour, Catalogue of Pictures and Historical Sketches. By L. E. L. Author of "The Improvisatrice." Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

The Life and Exploits of the ingenious Gentleman Don Quixotte de la Mancha, translated from the original Spanish of Miguel de Cer-

vantes Saavedra. By Charles Jarvis, Esq. To which is prefixed a Life of the Author. 4 Vols. 18mo. New York. Evert Duyckinck.

The Adventures of Telemachus, from the French of M. Fenelon. Translated by Dr Hawksworth. 2 vols. 18mo. New York. D. Mallory.

Practical Morality; or a Guide to Men and Manners, consisting of Lord Chesterfield's Advice to his Son. To which is added a Supplement; containing Extracts from various books recommended by Lord Chesterfield to Mr Stanhope, &c. 18mo. pp. 233. New York. George Long.

The Iliad of Homer. Translated by Alexander Pope. 2 Vols. 18mo. New York. W. Borrodaile.

The Works of Virgil, translated by Dryden. 2 Vols. 18mo. New York. W. Borrodaile.

The Vicar of Wakefield; a Tale by Oliver Goldsmith, M. B. with the Life of the Author, by Dr Johnson. 18mo. pp. 252. New York. George Long.

Essays and Poems. By Oliver Goldsmith, M. B. With a Memoir of the Author. 18mo. pp. 215. New York. D. Mallory.

Archæologia Græca; or the Antiquities of Greece. By John Potter, D. D. late Archbishop of Canterbury. To which is added an Appendix, containing a concise History of the Grecian States, and a short account of the Lives and Writings of the most celebrated Greek Authors; by G. Dunbar F. R. S. E. and Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh. First American from the last Edinburgh edition. With a Continuation of the History of Greece, from the Mahometan Conquest to the present year, and other Additions, by Charles Anthon, Adjunct Professor of Languages in Columbia College, New York. 1 vol. 8vo. Collins & Co.

A General View of the Manners, Customs, and Curiosities of Nations, including a Geographical Description of the Earth; the whole illustrated by fifty-four Maps and other Engravings. By the Rev. J. Goldsmith Vicar of Dunnington, &c. Revised by the senior publisher. 2 Vols. 12mo. New Haven. I. Babcock & Sons.

English Grammar, adapted to the different Classes of Learners, with an Appendix containing Rules and Observations, for assisting the more advanced Students to write with Perspicuity and Accuracy. By Lindlay Murray. From the last London edition. 12mo. pp. 312. Bridgeport, Ct. J. B. Baldwin.

History of the Church of England, from the earliest periods to the present time; being chiefly an Abridgment of Grant's. By the Rev. Edward Rutledge, A. M. 8vo. pp. 820. Middletown. Ct.

Reciprocal Duties of Parents and Children. By Mrs Taylor, Author of Maternal "Solicitude," "Practical Hints," &c. Boston. 1825. 18mo. pp. 144. James Loring.

This is an interesting little volume written for the best of purposes. It treats of the duties of parents and children in several of the stages and conditions of their relationship, and frequently illustrates and enforces them by short narratives.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. III. DECEMBER 1, 1825. No. 5.

REVIEWS.

Reform of Harvard College.

[Continued from page 139.]

IT would seem that all controversy might be put at rest, on the question of the intention of the charter as to the residence of the members of the Corporation, by inquiring, who were the Corporators, named in the charter. Were they persons residing at Cambridge, or were they, as now, the leading civil and clerical characters of Boston and its vicinity? If the latter were intended, a person versed in the history of our forefathers may almost of himself write down a list of the persons, who *must* have been selected to fill the first board of Corporation. They must have been the Cottons and Nortons, the Dudleys and Bradstreets. There is every reason that can possibly exist for rendering the first board of the infant seminary, as important as possible in the public eye, for its continued existence is in the breath of the General Court of the Colony and of private benefactors. Its instructers, with the exception of the President, are young and inexperienced men, and they, of course, will be the last persons selected for this responsible station. This, we say, is what we have a right to expect, if the Court, who gave the Charter, intended the Corporation should be composed as it is now composed. Who then are the individuals named in it? Two young men candidates for the ministry, who but three years before, had taken their second degree; a third and a fourth, who not three years before had taken their first degree; and a fifth, who was graduated the preceding Commencement, a

bachelor of arts of scarce *ten months'* standing. Why were *such* men designated as the five Fellows? The memorialists say, because they were resident at College,—on the spot, able to attend to its business, whether of instruction, government, or of whatever other kind. It is denied, on the other side, that these five were all residents. Mr Ticknor only admits it as *possible*, "that one or two," were residents and tutors, at the time the Charter was granted. He does not specify the one or the two; but we may ask, for what conceivable reason the others were designated, young men possitively without a known claim to this distinction?

The answer to this question is, that the College was an insignificant establishment; "so humble a school, that it seems to have been difficult, to get suitable persons to serve in the Corporation." This is in direct opposition, however, to the historical progress of the institution. It was incorporated in 1642; the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Magistrates, and Ministers of the six neighbouring towns were the Corporation. The institution, though humble (but not more so than every thing around it in church and state,—of course, not comparatively unimportant), was growing; in the words of Hutchinson, speaking in reference to the Charter of 1650, "it became more and more an object of attention," * and another Charter of incorporation was given by which a resident Corporation was created. This is the doctrine of the Memorial; and it is a rational solution of all the facts. On the ground assumed against the Memorial, the College, precisely at the moment when it had so increased, as to become "more and more an object of attention," was taken out of the hands of the Magistrates and Ministers, who retained only their concurrent jurisdiction and visitatorial power, while the immediate management, choice of President and other officers, and the making of laws was put into the hands of a board, composed of five young men, of whom the majority had not yet reached a second degree. This is inconceivable, incredible. If you suppose, with the Memorial, that these young persons were residents, the affair assumes an intelligible aspect. They were collected on the spot; and this was precisely what the growth of the institution demanded,—an ever present authority. If you suppose them non-resident, you are obliged, contrary to history, to sink the College to a degree of comparative insignifiance, for which there is no foundation in fact; and to admit, that while it was

* Hutchinson, i. 171.

actually growing more and more in the public attention, its immediate control was taken from the most honoured and venerated hands of the colony, and put into those of young men, who had as yet gained no station in society. Mr Ticknor argues, that the College was so humble a school, that it was difficult to get suitable persons to serve on the Corporation, because, in the order of Court, granting leave to bring in a bill for a charter, it is provided, that the Corporation must "not be magistrates, who are to be judges in case of difference [being Overseers], nor *ministers, who are unwilling to accept* thereof," &c. Now, if residents were not required, what possible objection could any minister have, to take a place in the Corporation. So humble a school! and was it indeed beneath the dignity of the ministers of that day, to condescend to be the governors of a college, which seven years before, had been pronounced "an honorable and most hopeful work, the beginnings whereof and progress hitherto generally doe fill our hearts with comfort; and train them up to much more expectation of the Lord's goodness for us hereafter, for the good of posterity and the churches of Christ Jesus?" * Is it the pious, self-denying, puritan ministers, who are represented as being unwilling to assume the government of such a college, because it was "so humble a school?" On the principles of the Memorial this paradox vanishes; for it was quite natural, that very few ministers would be found willing to leave their parishes, and come and reside at Cambridge on a few pounds a year; and this, we venture to affirm is the only interpretation, that gives any pertinency to the limitation of the Court, respecting ministers unwilling to accept; and agrees with the fact that the ministers designated in the charter were not settled. The case of Samuel Danforth is the only one, which Mr Ticknor has treated, and it is to this, for the sake of brevity, we shall confine ourselves. He states what he considers the facts in this case, viz. that May 12, 1650, Mr Danforth was dismissed the church of Cambridge, to join that of Roxbury, being nineteen days before the date of the charter; that in September 1650, Mr Dan-

* "New England's First Fruits," published in London, in 1643, in which the College is spoken of as a curiosity of "an edifice very fair and comely within and without, having in it a spacious hall, where they daily meet at commons, lectures, and exercises; and a large library, with some books in it, the gifts of diverse of our friends, their chambers and studies also filled for and possessed by the students, and all other rooms of office necessary and convenient, with all needful offices thereto belonging."

forth was ordained Minister at Roxbury; that in the new charter of 1672, Mr Danforth, being named as one of the fellows, is called "Samuel Danforth, Fellow of the said College;" and that in 1674, on his death, he is styled "in the College records," the Senior Fellow. This state of the case, says Mr Ticknor, will leave no doubt, "that Samuel Danforth was a member of the Corporation from 1650 to his death."

To this state of the case, continues Mr Ticknor, have been objected the two following circumstances; the one, that Capt. Johnson, speaking of Mr Danforth the year after his settlement at Roxbury, mentions him as a person, "*now* called to the office of teaching elder at Roxbury, who *was* one of the fellows of this College." This says Mr Ticknor "meant only that he had left the College, not that he had resigned his place in the Corporation;" and farther on, the passage in Johnson's "Wonder-working Providence" is said by Mr Ticknor to be "loosely written." This mode of reply evidently assumes the thing in controversy and to be proved, viz. that there were fellows of different kinds at this period, and that when it is said that Danforth *now* the minister at Roxbury, *was* a fellow of the College, it meant only, Mr Danforth who is settled in Roxbury, was a tutor, and is still a fellow of the Corporation. Against such latitude of interpretation, it is not necessary to enter a protest. Neither do we see why the remark of Johnson is to be regarded as "loosely written." This is to be sure a matter of taste. To our apprehension the expression is antithetically precise; and it is, moreover, from the pen of a man, peculiarly versed in College affairs, as the chapter from which it is cited shows; and who was two years after, and probably for this reason, placed by the Court on a committee of general visitation. But we shall not leave the matter here; the facts of the case, so called, are but a part of them.

In 1664 a translation of Norton's letter to Dury was published, signed by the Ministers of the colony, and by the President and Fellows of Harvard College, included within a bracket under that title. The name of Danforth is among the Ministers, not among the Fellows; and the four that do sign as fellows were young residents. It may be replied to this, that as the names of four fellows only are subscribed to this paper, Danforth was probably the fifth. We ask then why he did not subscribe his name among them; if a fellow at all, he was the eldest and most respectable; and it is far more likely that there was a vacancy, than that the most important signature should be omitted. We

submit it to the impartial, whether, when a document of an ecclesiastical nature, purporting to be subscribed, among others, by the President and Fellows of the College, in their official capacity, exhibits but four names, it is not a more reasonable presumption that there was a vacancy in the board, than that the oldest Fellow instead of subscribing the document officially as such, should subscribe only as one among forty Ministers.

Again it was usual in the early periods of the College, for the Corporation and Overseers to meet in convention. In 1667, such a meeting is recorded, and the names of those present are preserved, Danforth is among the Overseers, not among the Corporation. Had he been a member of both, his name would have stood in both lists; or if only on one, then it would have stood on the list of the Corporation, as the select, self-perpetuating, originating body. When in 1707, on President Leverett's accession, the charter of 1650 was revised, a similar convention of the Corporation and Overseers, was held. In the record of this meeting, Messrs Brattle and Hobart, who were members both of the Corporation and Overseers, are recorded in the lists of both; and of this meeting, we are told, by Chief Justice Sewall, in his diary, (the Chief Justice was graduated under the old charter, was for many years a resident Fellow, and in 1707 was an Overseer,) that this meeting was "*formed* according to the old charter." Had then Danforth in 1667, been a member of both bodies, he would, agreeably to the form of meetings under the old charter, have been recorded in the lists of both; he is recorded only as an Overseer. That he is spoken of at his death in 1674, as the "Senior Fellow," certainly proves nothing in this argument; for he was constituted Senior Fellow, by the new charter of 1672. That in this new charter of 1672, he is designated as "Samuel Danforth, fellow of the said College," also proves nothing, because it proves too much. He is, says Mr Ticknor, "the only person so described, *as well as the only person named in both charters.*" This is most true, and the clause italicized doubtless gives the reason why he alone was thus designated. At all events, this reason could *not* have been (as argued against the memorialists) that at the time of giving the new charter, he was also a fellow under the old charter, because this was equally true of Messrs Richardson and Brown, who are not so designated. We know, that at a later period viz. 1712, the circumstance of having been named in the first charter was thought peculiarly honourable. President Leverett calls Mitchell *unus e diplomatariis*, one of the charter fellows.

Whether, however, this be or be not the reason why Danforth *alone* of the five fellows in the charter of 1672, receives the epithet of *fellow*, the reason could not have been, by any rule of logic, that he was at the time also a fellow under the old charter, because this, so far from being true of him alone, was true of two others of the five, who nevertheless are named without the epithet.

But we will submit one other consideration, which in our judgment, proves, as far as a negative can be proved, that Danforth did not continue to be a Fellow, under the charter of 1650. The most respectable committee of both houses of the General Court in 1722 state, in their report, that it was the intent of the charter of 1650, that "none of the Fellows of the Corporation be Overseers." At this time, 1722, the ancient records of the Corporation (from which a few extracts only in a subsequent hand now remain), and the Old Book of the Overseers (also now lost with the exception of a few quotations), were in being. There were also living, members of the board of Overseers, who had taken their degree under the old charter; Chief Justice Sewall was one; and John Danforth, also at this time a member of the Overseers, the minister at Dorchester, the son of the elder Danforth now in question, was graduated in 1677. Now, on the supposition that Mr S. Danforth had been for twenty-two years, from the first giving of the charter a Fellow of the Corporation and an Overseer, is it conceivable, that the committee of both houses should have reported, that it was the intent of the charter that none of the Fellows should be Overseers? Would it not, out of the records of the Overseers and Corporation, now lost but then extant, have been easy to prove of Danforth or of any other person, had it been true of him or any other, that he united both offices? Would not the Corporation, in their elaborate memorial in 1723, have urged some such thing, for the very same reason, that Danforth's case is now so much pressed by their successors? Would not John Danforth have stood up and said, "My father's case proves, that under the old charter Fellows were Overseers;" would not old Chief Justice Sewall have told the committee, that, when he took his degree, the Minister at Roxbury was sitting in the pulpit at the President's side, as a Fellow? And does not the clear assertion of the most responsible men in the community in 1722 remaining uncontradicted, when, had it been erroneous, such various means of disproving it then existed which are now lost, satisfactorily show, that Danforth could not have been, as is alleged, a Fellow of the College after his removal to Roxbury?

This being the only case that Mr Ticknor has specified, we are authorized in concluding that it remains unproved by him, that any one of the five fellows under the old charter was non-resident.

But we are told by Mr Ticknor that it is incredible that all the five Fellows could have been tutors, at a time when there were but thirty students, especially as the president gave instruction. The memorialists did not contend that they were all tutors, but only residents, employed in instruction or government, or both. It does not appear, at any period after 1650 till 1674, that the number of five was ever full. The court in 1653 sent a commission to inquire how many fellows were needed; in the document cited from 1664, there were four fellows; at the recorded meeting in 1667, there were three. Whether the number was ever full between 1650 and 1672, is not certain; but it is certain, that in the list of fellows contained in the college catalogue, Danforth is the only one, in all this interval, alleged to have been non-resident. When it is asked whether five fellows were wanted in 1650, beside the president, as teachers, we ask whether four were wanted in 1664, or three in 1667. It is well known that the president and two tutors conducted the instruction long after the time spoken of, and till the college had considerably increased in numbers. Of the five named in the charter, those who were not employed in teaching may have been employed in such offices as that of librarian, of butler, or merely in private study; which is peculiarly probable of him, who was but a graduate of ten months' standing.

But we must pass, without notice, a great deal advanced on both sides, in order to call the attention of our readers, to an argument, which seems to us of itself conclusive. We allude to the argument drawn from the form of inducting fellows. This is a statute but a few weeks older than the charter, drawn up by one of the charter fellows, then also a tutor, and probably drawn up at this period in compliance with the order of court, requiring a draft of the power and liberties of the fellows; a statute in force and operation for twenty-two years after the charter; interrupted during the period of the several temporary charters; revived with alterations very important to this argument in 1712; and even declared by Mr Lowell, to be still unrepealed, though long disused.

This statute is entitled "Admittendis Sociis," and a public assent to it was required of the fellows. The original is in Latin; and the following is a translation.

1st. "You will give all due reverence to the honored magistrates and reverend ministers, and to the president, *as the Overseers*, of the College.

2d. "You will religiously take upon yourself the care, so long as you shall here abide, of observing all the wholesome laws, statutes, and privileges of this society, as much as in you lies, and that they may also be observed by all the members of this college, each in his place.

3d. "You will advance all and singular the students, which are or may be committed to your care, in divine and human learning, each according to his capacity; and you will chiefly be careful, that they conduct themselves honestly and blamelessly.

4th. "You will sedulously provide, as far as in you lies, that the college suffer no detriment, in its charges, buildings, revenues, or any thing else appertaining, or which may appertain to the college, while you dwell here.

5th. "We then, the Overseers of the college, promise that we will not be wanting to you, in any thing that concerns you; on the contrary, we will confirm you by our power and authority, in all your administrations, against all opposers, and, in proportion to the means of the college, we will furnish you stipends, which shall suffice for your food and clothing, *and the prosecution of your studies.*" *

How can the evidence be met, which this statute affords, that the fellows were resident stipendiaries, employed in teaching or studying?—It cannot be met, by that hypothesis (so much resorted to, in other portions of the argument against the Memorial), that two kinds of fellows were in the contemplation of the charter; viz. fellows of the Corporation, and fellows resident but not of the Corporation; and that this form was administered to the latter. In this case, of course, it would have been not the Overseers, but the Corporation, who would promise protection and maintenance. How then is the argument met? It is alleged, that this was a form existing before the charter, repealed by the charter, and not used after it. This, in fact, is the only answer given to this argument. We shall endeavour satisfactorily to disprove it.

As this statute of admitting fellows stands in the college book,

* This last clause, compared with the third paragraph in this form, proves that those who gave the charter, saw no incongruity in uniting in the same person the quality of teacher and learner. They followed the analogy of the English colleges.

the date nearest preceding is March 28th, 1650; the charter was signed and sealed, May 31st, 1650. Our readers may judge of the probability, that a form of this kind should have been established, with a view to being repealed in two months. When we consider the time which it takes to carry a bill through the usual legislative forms, a law standing in the college books under date of March 28th, may be considered as almost coeval with a charter enacted, engrossed on parchment, signed and sealed two months after.

But we have the history of this statute of admission, from President Leverett in 1712.

When he was elected in 1707, an order of court was passed to this effect: "Inasmuch as the first foundation and establishment of that house and the government thereof had its original from an act of the court, made and passed in 1650, which has not been repealed or nulled, the President and Fellows of said college are directed from time to time to regulate themselves, according to the rules of the constitution by said act provided," &c.

We make this quotation to show that, by the *first foundation* and *constitution* of the College, President Leverett means the charter of 1650.

The distinction between *fellow of the house* and *fellow of the Corporation* had, in 1712, become fixed. But so far was it, as is maintained against the memorial, coeval with the charter, that only five years before, President Leverett, in his own hand, writes the non-resident members of the corporation, "fellows of the house." The distinction therefore in 1707, was not yet fixed. In 1712 Mr Stevens, afterwards minister of Charlestown, was elected a fellow of the house, but not of the corporation, and he requested to be inducted as a fellow in the ancient form, by subscribing the statute of admissions. This was accordingly done, with great solemnity in the college hall. This solemnity, being in the words of President Leverett's diary, the first of this sort "since the restauration of Harvard College to its first constitution," he gives the account of the ceremonial at length. In this account, the president says, that the forms of admission are not new, but "coeval with the primitive constitution." After some more general remarks, he proceeds; "The forms of admission are not of our own, or of recent invention, but of ancient prescription; and I find them written in the same hand, in which the very ancient laws are written (which have by no means lost their authority, through all the changes of recent revolutions or

past times), the hand of the celebrated Mitchell, a member of the College in its foundation, and one of its charter-fellows. Those forms indeed were disused, *while the office of President was vacant, under the non-resident presidents, and under the intermediate, substituted, and precarious charters.*" "I well remember," he adds, "that four years since, it was commanded to us, to administer the affairs of the college, according to the rules prescribed by Dudley's charter."

In these words of President Leverett, it is established, on the authority of this most respectable head of the College, who had been resident at it almost from the time that he entered it as a student, who had the ancient records then entire before him, and was able to name the person, in whose handwriting the law in question was recorded; *first*, that this statute of admission was coeval with the charter, and so prescribed under it, that he himself now revives it, because he had been ordered by the court to administer the College according to the charter of 1650; *secondly*, that it was a statute observed till the times of Vice-Presidents, of non-resident presidents, and of the intermediate, substituted, and precarious charters, that is, at least till the year 1672, before which time, none of the circumstances enumerated had existed at the College. It is therefore proved (if it needed to be proved), that this form of admission was not repealed, nor disused, after the term of *eight weeks* from the time of its enactment, as is contended against the memorialists.

But we can make this matter yet clearer. In the statute of admission cited above, the last article runs, "We then, *the Overseers* of the College promise, &c. that we will furnish you stipends." When Mr Stevens, in 1712, was to subscribe this form, times were altered; a distinction had now grown up between fellows of the Corporation and fellows of the house; the former constituted a new board between the Overseers and the resident government; and President Leverett accordingly tells Mr Stevens, that he shall administer the form to him, "mutatis mutandis, pro variatione temporum ac personarum ratione."—Accordingly in the last article, instead of "*We*, then, *the Overseers*," &c. we read, "and, as to the Overseers of the College, *they* promise that they will not be wanting to you in any thing that concerns you, on the contrary they will confirm you by their power and authority in all your legitimate functions against all opposers; and *the Corporation*, in proportion to the means of the College, will appoint you a stipend, which shall suffice for your food, clothing, and the prosecution of your studies."

This is the argument from the statute of admitting fellows, as it was stated last winter, in defence of the Memorial. We shall now quote the *whole* of "Mr Ticknor's remarks" upon it:— "The second argument is a form of induction used for fellows, before the date of the charter, which seems to imply that the fellows inducted by it, should reside. But *there is no proof attempted* that this formula has been used since the charter was given; and therefore, it has nothing to do with the fellows of the Corporation."

[*To be continued.*]

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1. *An Address delivered in Nashville, Tennessee, January* 12, 1825, *at the Inauguration of the President of Cumberland College.* By PHILIP LINDSLEY, D. D. President of the College. Nashville. 8vo. pp. 48.
2. *Plan of a Seminary for the Education of Instructers of Youth.* By THOMAS H. GALLAUDET, Principal of the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb. Boston. 1825. 8vo. pp. 39.
3. *Observations on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States; with Suggestions for its Accomplishment.* By WALTER R. JOHNSON, Principal of the Academy at Germantown, Pennsylvania. Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo. pp. 28.

ONE important suggestion in President Lindsley's Address, is, that instructers of youth require some direct preparation for the duties of their profession. The principal object of Mr Gallaudet is to point out some of the peculiar advantages, which would result from the establishment of an institution for the express purpose of affording such necessary preparation. And Mr Johnson proposes to attain the same end by attaching to our colleges and higher seminaries of learning, professors whose duty it shall be to study the science of education, and instruct those in it, who may wish to pursue that as a profession. We regard the fact that essentially the same idea has been advanced, almost at the same time, by different gentlemen in different and remote sections of our country, as strong evidence that the attainment of their common object is near at hand. For in an intelligent and enterprising community, like our own, public wants are seldom long felt, when their supplies lie within the reach of human means.

It has been popular, and therefore common, particularly in New England, to bestow loud praises upon our forefathers, for their wisdom in providing by law for the diffusion of knowledge. Far be it from us to detract from the merits of their exertions, or to underrate the influence of them upon our present condition. Their efforts were strenuous and worthy of all praise. And the influence of them has spread abroad over this whole people, and produced one of the most interesting traits in our national character,—a trait, too, which, we trust in the good providence of God, will be handed down from generation to generation as long as we exist as a nation. But it by no means follows, that what was good and perfectly adapted to our condition two hundred years ago, is necessarily and in the same degree so now. And we think a portion of the acuteness and the eloquence of our statesmen, as well as of our public and pulpit orators might be spared from their vague and indiscriminate eulogies on our system of public instruction; and at the same time be profitably employed in the more ungracious task of searching out and pointing out its defects, as adapted to our present state of society. Without making pretension to the gift of prophecy, or to more than an ordinary share of human sagacity, we are much mistaken in the whole spirit of our times, if the education of the young is not about to assume an importance in the public estimation, which it has never yet assumed, and to be conducted upon more consistent and philosophical principles than have ever yet been reduced to practice in this country. The influence of early education in a political as well as moral and religious point of view, is coming to be better understood; and hence we see the philanthropists, and especially the advocates of free political institutions throughout the world, engaged in advancing its best interests.

This age is said, and said truly to be marked by nothing more distinctly, than by its wide and earnest diffusion of knowledge. We speak not now of the splendid achievements of science, but of that knowledge, which makes men conscious of the dignity of their nature, and gives to each one who possesses it, some measure of influence in the nation to which he may belong. The degree of influence of course must vary with the character of the institutions with which he is surrounded; but wherever he may be, the man, who is possessed of a mind properly developed and stored with only a moderate portion of knowledge, will have his influence upon those around him, and they again upon others. So no one, especially in a free country, may deem himself insig-

nificant, or, without incurring responsibilities, pervert the influence which he possesses, and of which he could not divest himself if he would. This wider diffusion of knowledge constitutes, at least, a part of the progressive improvement in the condition of mankind. And as it has spread abroad and reached larger classes of men in the old world, it has called into exercise and added to the national aggregates a vast amount of plebeian talents. These have generally proved to be very expansive; and their development has thrown off the abuses and sluggish superstitions of earlier ages, sometimes perhaps with a vengeance. But this does not prove the diffusion of knowledge to be on the whole an evil, as some would persuade themselves. It is only a partial and temporary disturbance in the great human family, to be endured for a time, and then to be followed by a general and permanent good.

Without intending to make invidious comparisons for our own glorification, among the generations which have covered the earth for six thousand years, we may safely say, there never has been a time within the records of history, when the rays of knowledge spread wider and penetrated deeper than they do at the present moment. And there, probably, never was a time when efforts were more general, more zealous, or more persevering, to make them spread still wider, and to penetrate still deeper the whole population of the civilized world. Nor are the bolder efforts of our age confined to the *civilized* world. They are so gigantic as to embrace the whole human family. Probably all the grand designs, that have been conceived will not be fully executed; but much will no doubt be done to improve the condition and raise the prospects of those, who might otherwise remain for ages yet to come, as they have remained for ages now gone by, in the depths of barbarism. We are persuaded, however, that whatever may be *attempted*, in the great work of civilizing the barbarians, christianizing the heathen, or converting the Jews, either by benevolent individuals, or by well organized societies, even though they may concentrate and direct the energies of whole nations, most will be *accomplished* by those efforts which are directed to the education of the young. Experience has already amply confirmed the truth of the proposition, that no general, deep, and permanent impression can be made, by human means, upon a race of men grown old and bigoted in error. They guard every avenue to their minds with a vigilance that cannot be worried out. And they resist every innovation, especially if it is announced to them as such, with an

obstinacy which cannot be broken. Let them alone. We reverently adopt the language of scripture; they are joined unto *idols*, let them alone. If efforts are more judiciously directed, a better race will succeed them. It seems a strange project, indeed, in our plans for benevolent exertion, to leave out of account a whole race, and that race too, with which we happen to be contemporary. But among the endless generations, which throng the earth, and will continue to do it, a single one does not bear a large proportion to the whole. And it is correct to reason upon this subject, as if we ourselves were to live forever, while others could attain only to the common age of man.

We have digressed a little from our purpose, but by so doing we have intimated the wide bearing, which any improvement in conducting the education of the young would have; and that those who are engaged in reforming the morals and religion of the world, or in other words, in sending christianity to the inhabitants of the whole earth, would be among the first to derive advantage from them, in accomplishing their benevolent designs.

A more energetic system of public instruction, and as a branch of such a system, more skilful teachers have long been needed; and moreover, the whole community are beginning to be sensible of it. It has become a public want, and unless the ordinary laws of nature are suspended or reversed in this case, the supply will in due time be forthcoming by some means and from some quarter. In order to give the public more skilful teachers, the science of education must be made the ground of a more distinct profession. And why should it not be so. While the number of inhabitants in the United States is doubling once in twenty-five years, and especially while so small a part of this vast increase is by immigration, a large proportion of the whole population must be of that age, when the chief concern in regard to them should be to prepare them for the successful discharge of their duties as members of a civilized society and as citizens of a free government. We cannot speak with confidence in regard to the southern and western sections of our country; but in New England and in some of the Middle States, it is a moderate estimate, and probably much below the truth, to state that four persons are on an average employed in the instruction of youth to one in preaching the gospel, and that exclusive of all domestic and private instruction. The number of public teachers, therefore, male and female, employed, on an average will probably be found nearly equal to that of all the other professions. When we estimate in this connexion the influence of early edu-

cation upon the future character, it seems to us that the view of the subject must arrest the attention not only of those who would promote our greatest moral and intellectual improvement, but of those whose duty it is to provide for the permanence and stability of our political institutions.

It may be new to some of our readers to hear the subject of education spoken of as a science. And we must confess that we apply the term to it, rather in consideration of what it should be, than of what it really is, or is understood to be even by some who have paid most attention to it. But is it incredible, or even improbable, that a new science may yet be disclosed? The searching spirit which has gone forth, has developed within a few years several new sciences, which before were almost unknown; or were made up of a few scattered facts, and those not systematically arranged or reduced to any general principles. Among these we might name chemistry, geology, and political economy. These are all sciences which are found to have important bearings upon the interests of society; and all sciences which now engross a liberal share of the public attention. And even these may be again subdivided, and others spring out of them which do not now exist even in the imagination of men.

So we believe it will be with education as a branch of moral and intellectual philosophy. There is a whole science wrapped up in that mysterious little thing, the infant mind, which has never been developed;—a science, too, which will have a stronger influence upon the condition and prospects of men than any other. We say stronger, because it relates to that part of ourselves, which is susceptible of the highest, perhaps of indefinite improvement, at a period in our lives when every bias is soonest and most permanently felt; and because it has for its object to call forth in their natural order, and put in healthy and vigorous action, all those intellectual powers, that constitute the very instruments with which we must proceed to accomplish whatever is within the reach of man.

Moral philosophy has been studied, reduced to principles, and inculcated in all systems of public instruction; but it only teaches *men* their duty and the reasons of it. We have a moral nature and moral feelings, which are susceptible of influence, development, and direction, by a series of means, before we can reason upon them ourselves. This is the field for the moral philosophy of education. It opens almost with our existence, and extends through all the stages of childhood and youth, till our intellectual faculties are so far developed as to enable us to excite, suppress,

and control our feelings and regulate our actions with reference to distant motives. Then we may begin to *study* moral philosophy; before that time, we must act from motives, placed before us by those who control our education, without being able to comprehend the ultimate tendency or the reason of our actions. And his moral education is most perfect, whose feelings and habits are so formed, that he needs not to change them, when his reason comes to decide upon their fitness with reference to his being's end and aim. The skill of the instructer, therefore, in this department of education, consists in comprehending the temperament and disposition of his pupil, and in addressing those motives only to him, which will induce such actions as he approves, and lead to the formation of such habits as he wishes to establish. If this view of the subject be correct, we think it must occur to every one, that there are several stages in the development of our moral nature, and the formation of our moral character, which have never been subjected to a sufficiently minute and rigid examination. General principles in the moral education of youth must be established like all other general principles, by a regular process of induction. And in order to this, a great variety of particular cases must occur, and a great many discriminating observations must be made; or in other words, we must have at hand large experience either of our own, or of those upon whose observations we may safely rely. With sufficient materials for philosophy, or the facts of the case, we know not why we may not establish general principles upon this subject as well as upon any other of a similar nature. And when they are so established they must be of incalculable utility to those of slight experience in the management and government of youth; and such there must always be, while men attain only to three score and ten.

Metaphysicians have analyzed the human mind often enough, and, perhaps, minutely enough; but it has been the mind in a state of maturity. This class of philosophers always open their subject, and vindicate its claims to extraordinary dignity, by saying that the materials to be analyzed, and the instruments to be employed upon them, are all within themselves. So indeed they are. And for that very reason they describe only those faculties and those operations, of which no one can be conscious, whose mind is not yet in the same advanced stage of development. But there is a series of years, and important years, in our education, of the intellectual operations peculiar to which, we can in manhood have no recollection, and of which we can

form no adequate conceptions by reference to the operations of a mature mind under similar circumstances. Neither can children, at the early age of which we speak, describe the operations of their own minds so as to throw much light upon the subject. Whatever we learn, therefore, of their intellectual habits we must learn by means very different from those we employ afterwards, when their minds can take cognizance of their own operations and describe them intelligibly to others. Here then, although the instruments of observation, to use the language of metaphysicians, are within the philosopher, the subject of upon which they are to be employed, or the materials to be analyzed, are not. And this important circumstance constitutes a difference between the subject of metaphysics as it has usually been understood and defined, and the new branch of it, which, we contend, is about to be developed. We suppose nature proceeds by uniform laws in the development of the mind as well as in every thing else. What then are these laws, and how shall we trace them? These seem to our mind to be questions of the deepest interest to mankind, although they are not very easily answered. The analogy between the processes carried on in the infant and a mature mind, as we have before intimated, is not so close as to afford us much assistance. And the child itself cannot give us much aid, because it cannot comprehend our purposes in subjecting it to an examination; and if it could, it has not yet any language for expressing to us its intellectual states or processes. Though the infant mind is ever active in itself, it is passive in regard to our object. Although it is constantly manifesting new phenomena, it cannot direct or aid us in the observation or classification of them; so as to form a general or uniform law, by which we might predict what phenomena would follow given circumstances. We are upon a level far above it, and must look down upon its shadowy, complicated, and varying operations, as we look down upon a map, whose shades and lines are almost too minute to be traced by our blunted sight. We must observe and arrange by our own ingenuity the circumstances which excite it, and trace its operations or rather the results of its operations when it is excited; somewhat as we observe phenomena and trace laws in chemistry, by noticing the results of given combinations of elements, when we cannot see the operation going on or comprehend the mode of it.

We hold, and have held for many years, undoubting belief that the science of education is capable of being reduced, like other sciences, to general principles. By a partial induction, or a long

series of discriminating observations, the infant mind may be so far analyzed or its phenomena classed, as to enable us not only to define accurately its several powers with their mutual connexions and dependencies, but to fix with precision the natural order of their development, and to adapt to them such exercises as will develop them most successfully. It might perhaps seem presumption to call in question the axioms of the science; and it certainly would not be easy to point out in a few words the false principles which lie at the foundation of our systems of instruction. Moreover we should not lightly undertake to calculate the perplexity, and time, and perversion of talents they cost the young,—the waste of money they cost parents and the public,—and the waste of patient and laborious effort they cost instructers. We shall name only two false principles, which seem to us to lie at the root of the matter, believing that if they could be reformed the whole subject would assume a new aspect.

1. Education is understood to consist in the acquisition of knowledge. This we infer from the pompous catalogues of books and subjects, which are arrayed and set forth as constituting the course of every petty school in the land. They are subjects oftentimes for which the youthful mind is not at all prepared, and by which of course it must be baffled and discouraged. When a subject is presented to a pupil, which requires the exercise of an intellectual faculty not yet developed, he must be as much confused as a blind man would be, if called upon to criticize colours. Education we believe, at least elementary education, does *not* consist in the acquisition of knowledge; but in the development of the mind. And subjects should be selected and arranged with reference to this object, the acquisition of knowledge being only incidental.

2. When the subjects are selected, perhaps judiciously, they are presented in a form, which neither affords a salutary discipline to the mind, nor facilitates the acquisition of knowledge. They are all too abstract, or are generalizations of facts which are themselves unknown to the pupil. Particularly, the whole courses of the physical and exact sciences, to use a common but expressive phrase, come precisely the wrong end foremost;—first the general principle, then the particular instances illustrating it. Lord Bacon has taught us that this is not the method by which the human mind takes in knowledge, and it is time we had attended to his instructions. Upon all new subjects of which we have no knowledge or experience, we must, *first*, have the particular cases, instances, or facts, abstracting the qualities or points

of resemblance common to them all; then a description of those qualities or points of resemblance, which constitutes a general principle. We have no room to enlarge upon these topics, but believe they will be found to reach the evils and defects, which have been so long and so severely felt. For if the purpose of early education be the development and discipline of the mind; then all subjects must be selected and arranged with reference to this purpose. And if Lord Bacon's philosophy is sound; then the subjects so selected and arranged must be put in that form, in which alone the mind can successfully encounter them.

If these views are correct, and these principles philosophical, and we do not see how any one can doubt that they are so, the question occurs, how can they soonest be developed in all their details, and be made thoroughly effective in all our public as well as private instruction. It seems to us, as we have before intimated, that it can only be done by making the subject the ground of a distinct profession.

Upon this point, we improve the opportunity to introduce the following remarks of Mr Gallaudet.* He is a gentleman whose philanthropic and devoted labours have done much to improve the condition, and enlarge the capacities for happiness, of an unfortunate class of our fellow beings; and whose experience in the practical details, and reflections upon the science of education, have enabled him to point out defects and suggest remedies for them with singular acuteness.

"All, I presume, will agree with me in yielding assent to this general principle, that no important result can be attained with regard to the accomplishment of any object which affects the temporal or eternal wellbeing of our species, without enlisting an entire devotedness to it of intelligence, zeal, fidelity, industry, integrity, and practical exertion. What is it, that has furnished us with able divines, lawyers, and physicians? The undivided consecration of the talents and efforts of intelligent and upright individuals to these professions. How have these talents been matured, and these efforts been trained, to their beneficial results? By a long discipline in the schools of experience. We have our theological, law, and medical institutions, in which our young men are fitted for the pursuit of these respective professions, by deriving benefit from the various sources of information which libraries, lectures, and experiments afford. Unaided by such auxiliaries, genius, however brilliant; invention, however prolific; observation, however acute; ingenuity, however ready; and per-

* Principal of the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, at Hartford, Connecticut.

severance, however indefatigable, have to grope their way, through a long and tiresome process, to the attainment of results which a little acquaintance with the labours of others in the same track of effort, would render a thousand times more easy, rapid, and delightful. Experience is the storehouse of knowledge. Now why should not this experience be resorted to as an auxiliary in the education of youth? Why not make this department of human exertion *a profession*, as well as those of divinity, law, and medicine?"

Few, we apprehend, will question the practicability or the expediency of making the education of youth, the ground of a distinct profession. And we are persuaded that this can soonest and most effectually be done, by the establishment of an institution or institutions, for the purpose of affording the preparation necessary for the successful discharge of the duties of this profession. Mr Gallaudet, however, in the pamphlet before us, has only hinted at a plan of such a seminary, it being his purpose to fix the public attention upon the subject, rather than to lay down a scheme which could be adopted and acted upon, without modification and development.

"Suppose such an institution should be so well endowed, by the liberality of the public, or of individuals, as to have two or three professors, men of talents and habits adapted to the pursuit, who should devote their lives to the object of the "Theory and Practice of the Education of Youth," and who should prepare and deliver, and perhaps print, a course of lectures on the subject.

"Let the Institution be furnished with a library, which should contain all the works, theoretical and practical, in all languages, which can be obtained on the subject of education, and also with all the apparatus that modern ingenuity has devised for this purpose; such as maps, charts, globes, orreries, &c. &c.

"Let there be connected with the Institution a school, smaller or larger, as circumstances might dictate, of indigent children and youth, and especially of foreign youth whom we are rearing for future benevolent efforts, in which the theories of the professors might be reduced to practice, and from which daily experience would derive a thousand useful instructions.

"To such an Institution let young men resort, of piety, of talents, of industry, and of adaptedness to the business of the instructers of youth, and who would expect to devote their lives to so important an occupation. Let them attend a regular course of lectures on the subject of education; read the best works; take their turns in the instruction of the experimental school, and after thus becoming qualified for their office, leave the Institution with a suitable certificate or diploma, recommending them to the confidence of the public."

This can hardly be considered a "plan," although it contains some valuable suggestions upon the subject. But upon the peculiar advantages of a seminary for the purpose, upon some plan, Mr Gallaudet is eloquent and full. We subjoin those remarks upon this point, which seem to us to be the most important; and for others, must refer our readers to the pamphlet itself.

"It would direct the attention, and concentrate the efforts, and inspire the zeal, of many worthy and intelligent minds to one important object. They would excite each other in this new career of doing good. Every year would produce a valuable accession to the mass of experience that would be constantly accumulating at such a store-house of knowledge. The business of instructing youth would be reduced to a system, which would embrace the best and the readiest modes of conducting it. This system would be gradually diffused throughout the community. Our instructers would rank, as they ought to do, among the most respectable professions."

Again:

"Its professors will have their friends and correspondents in various parts of the country, to whom they will, from time to time, communicate the results of their speculations and efforts, and to whom they will impart a portion of the enthusiasm which they themselves feel. Such an Institution, too, would soon become an object of laudable curiosity. Thousands would visit it. Its experimental school, if properly conducted, would form a most delightful and interesting spectacle. Its library and various apparatus would be, I may say, a novelty in this department of the philosophy of the human mind. It would probably, also, have its public examinations, which would draw together an assembly of intelligent and literary individuals. Its students, as they dispersed through the community, would carry with them the spirit of the Institution, and thus, by these various processes of communication, the whole lump of public sentiment, and feeling, and effort, would be leavened. * * * *

"Another advantage resulting from such an Institution would be, that it would lead to the investigation and establishment of those principles of discipline and government most likely to promote the progress of children and youth in the acquisition of intellectual and moral excellence. How sadly vague and unsettled are all the plans in this most important part of education, now in operation in our common schools; if, indeed, there are any plans at all. * * * *

"At such an Institution we might hope, in the course of a few years, to have the best mode devised of imparting moral and re-

ligious truth to the youthful mind, and of preparing those elementary books of instruction on this important subject which are yet so much needed."

But perhaps the most important advantage to be expected from a seminary for the preparation of teachers, would be this:

"At such a Seminary as I have proposed, the subject of preparing books for children and schools would be taken up in earnest by men devoted to the object. Its library would furnish them with all the lights that past experience could afford; the experimental school would be adding a continual stock to this experience; their own ingenuity would be at work, and in the course of time, (for I do not pretend to say that this important object is to be accomplished at once,) we might hope to see issue from this fountain of youthful instruction, a series of school-books, either original or compiled, that would form parts of one regular and well-digested system; that would be constructed on principles, and written in a style accommodated to the minds of mere learners; and that would develop the various subjects of orthography, elocution, arithmetic, geography, history, grammar, &c. under forms of communication, not clothed with all the technicalities of dry and abstract rules; nor obscured by the mists of a too elevated and subtle phraseology; nor stretching away into the indefiniteness of a generalization, which scarcely the ken of metaphysical acuteness can follow; but plain, palpable, definite, particular, intelligible."

Mr Gallaudet also points out some of the prevailing defects in the common methods of teaching, and particularly of teaching language. He anticipates some of the obstacles to be encountered in a reformation, and estimates the practical influence, which a reformed system of school-books and instruction would have upon missionary efforts. All these topics, our limits compel us to pass over, with only the expression of our hearty concurrence in the author's views. But we introduce one passage more, because it will have a tendency to obviate a difficulty, which may be raised against the proposed seminary, on the ground of its expense.

"Those who should devote themselves to the business of the instruction of youth as a profession, and who should prepare themselves for it by a course of study and discipline at such a Seminary as I have proposed, would not find it necessary, as our missionaries do, to depend on the charity of their countrymen for support. Their talents, their qualifications, and their recommendations, would inspire public confidence, and command public patronage.

For experience would soon prove, if it cannot be now seen in prospect, that to save time in the education of youth, and to have this education complete instead of being imperfect; and to prepare the youthful mind for accurate thought and correct feeling, and practical, energetic action, in all the business of life, is to save money; and even those who now expend a few dollars with so niggardly a hand, in the education of their dear, immortal offspring, would soon learn how to calculate on the closest principles of loss and gain, in the employment of instructers; and be willing to give twice as much to him who would do his work twice as well, and in half the time, as they now give to him who has neither skill nor experience in his profession."

[*To be continued.*]

MISCELLANY.

A RESIDENCE IN GLASGOW.

PROFESSOR JARDINE.

This individual has risen to more celebrity on our side of the Atlantic than on his own. The sound and practical views of education, which are given in his "Outlines," have been deservedly received with much approbation; and have gained among us, a high standing for their author, at a time when improvement in methods of instruction is our favourite topic of discussion. During my residence in Glasgow, however, I found that the venerable professor, though much respected in the quiet round of his duties, was by no means so publicly eminent as you had supposed. The truth is, he did not indulge in any of those wild and mystical speculations, nor in any of those poetic strains of diction, which constitute much of the popular fascination in other writers and lecturers on his subject. His only aim was the substantial benefit of his pupils. He was content accordingly to descend to the most familiar views of his subject, and to throw all his powers into the channel of laborious and patient effort in his class-room. In his lectures, he was a father surrounded by his children, instructing them with parental familiarity, caring but little about the manner and anxious chiefly with regard to the matter, and never once dreaming of contemporary or posthumous fame.

Professor Jardine was a pupil of Dr Reid; and it was doubtless the common sense views of intellectual philosophy, inculcated by that great man, which gave the bias to his pupil's mind, and produced his peculiar tendency to manly plainness of thought and useful investigation. On his accession to the chair, the professor

found the field of his labours strewed with much remaining lumber of scholastic forms. To these wrecks of exploded pretension many of the Universities of Europe seemed then to cling, with a tenacity which frowned on every hope of improvement. During the professorship of Jardine, more was done to effect a judicious, gradual, and silent revolution in the method of instruction, than was ever done in the incumbency of any individual. By curtailing the course of logic, so as to exclude the useless and endless jargon of the ancient syllogistic method, he secured a place to the elements of intellectual philosophy and of rhetoric. This arrangement, however, made his actual duties laborious in the extreme. There devolved on him all the usual routine of lecturing and examining in logic and the other sciences I have mentioned; and, from the low state of the preparatory schools till within a few years of his resignation, he had to train the juvenile division of his class to their very first efforts in composition.* In this branch of his charge, his difficulties were great; but his success was remarkable. The heedlessness of youth he checked with a paternal mildness which effected more than all the frowns and the fines of other professors, —equal, perhaps superior, in reputation, but not so happy in a control which had little parade, though a deep and powerful influence. He won and secured attention by the simplicity of his expositions, and the interesting character of his illustrations; and he incited to diligence by the cheering voice of encouragement.

The value of knowledge was the grand prize which the professor held up to ambition. In no class in college was there less of that hireling diligence which performs its task, with an eye greedily fixed on the coming honour by which it is to be compensated. His commendations were so judiciously and impartially given, that a word of approbation from Professor Jardine was more highly valued, than the public prizes of some other classes. His reproofs were dreaded, not from their severity, but from the conscious degradation they entailed, in a class-room where every individual thought and felt with his instructer; and where, in the long course of his honoured labours, a murmur of dissatisfaction was never heard. To all his students he applied the highest and the best of motives; but his was not that indolent discharge of duty, which rests satisfied with mere direction or command. He saw that every requirement was fully complied with, and that the indo-

* In the latter years of Dr Jardine's professorship, the condition of preparatory education in Glasgow was much improved. A private class, connected with the University, was formed for instruction and practice in the rudiments of composition; an extra year, and additional branches, were annexed to the grammar-school course; and an elocution school was conducted by Mr Sheridan Knowles, a very able instructer, and, subsequently, a very popular dramatic writer.

lent and the sluggish never escaped without detection and exposure. So thorough-going were his habits of exaction, that he would leave his chair and go round, from form to form, to inspect personally the exercises he prescribed, and to see that juvenile cunning did not succeed in screening neglect by sly imposition.

Much of the professor's success was owing to his keeping his pupils constantly employed. He never permitted the mental powers to become feeble or languid through inaction. Every pupil had as much exacted of him as his abilities were competent to perform. In discipline, Professor Jardine's chief reliance was on the interest which he succeeded in giving to his subject, so as to furnish a constant and pleasing occupation to the mind, and exclude every thing that might divert the attention and lead to misconduct. This method was so completely successful, that, in his class-room, nothing was more rare than a fine or even a reproof for misdemeanor.

The lectures of the professor were delivered at an early hour in the morning, and occupied usually about fifty minutes. In the forenoon, the class was re-assembled to be interrogated on the lecture of the morning, and to furnish compositions on a subject connected with the lecture of a preceding day. The answers to the questions were extemporaneous, and sometimes embraced a recapitulation of a great part of the lecture. The themes were handed to the professor, who daily carried home a certain number to read and criticise. On a subsequent day, these exercises were read by the professor, in presence of the class; and such remarks were made as the merits or defects of the pieces seemed to require. The criticism was very minute, but delivered so mildly as always to cherish hope, and encourage perseverance.

On Saturday forenoon, miscellaneous questions were put to such of the students as volunteered to answer them. Sometimes a definition was proposed. These exercises tended to produce accuracy and readiness of thought, and to facilitate the habit of extemporaneous address. On the same day, it was customary for a certain number of the students to be examined on whatever author they were reading at home. This exercise was, perhaps, the most beneficial of any, and especially to the younger members of the class. It produced a more close and systematic attention to every book that was read; no intimation being given to any pupil of the Saturday on which his account of his reading would be required. The questions put on these occasions, were such as, What is the subject of the work? How is it arranged or divided? What are the author's peculiar views of his subject? What is his style? &c.

Besides these regular exercises of the class, every student who chose gave in occasionally a voluntary theme, on a subject connected with that of any lecture. These performances the profes-

sor carried home, perused at leisure hours, and returned with written and oral remarks on the correctness of the ideas, and the qualities of the style. The ambitious were thus always sure of reaping a rich reward for their labour, in the commendation of their instructer and the applause of their class-fellows. The latter point was by no means an unimportant one; for the prizes * of the class were, as is customary in Glasgow, all awarded by the votes of the students. In the decision of the premiums, the class was arranged in three divisions, according to ages; so that in subjects where so much advantage would otherwise have lain on the side of years and maturity, no unfair disparity was suffered to injure the claims of competitors; and the stimulus to effort was as powerfully applied to boys of fifteen, as to adults.

THE BACHELOR—NO. II.

"We are such stuff as dreams are made of."

Tempest.

Mr Editor,—I received the number of your Gazette which contained my maiden essay, with a degree of pleasure, only to be conceived by those who have but lately seen themselves in print for the first time. After contemplating the general appearance of my small contribution, scrutinizing the mechanical execution, and perusing it sundry times, with great satisfaction, I fell naturally into the consideration of the reason of the pleasure experienced by authors of all degrees in the contemplation of their works. At first it seemed to me that it might arise from the expectation of the applause of the world and the consciousness of having made some figure in it; but the secret gratification I have frequently known to remain, after the former had been completely disappointed, and when the most vain imagination could derive little food from the latter. Again, it may be that the author's heart warms with the hope of better days and more candid posterity. But no person of much reflection can continue long to entertain expectations, which the slightest experience of the ephemeral nature of periodical literature, the proverbial grave of intellect, must demonstrate to be so void of foundation. Why then is such an author pleased? Probably for the same reason that a man likes to see his face in a mirror, or on canvass. As there are few among man kind, not to speak of the softer sex, who do not derive occasional gratification from this employment, it would seem reasonable that they should find still greater in re-

* The method of conferring premiums in the College of Glasgow resembles that of our schools rather than of our Colleges. The prizes are chiefly books, which are distributed by the professors at an annual celebration.

garding the reflection of their minds. But why should any one wish to see his own face? In order to discover how he appears to the world. And why should he wish to know how he appears to the world? The reply to this question led me off into a philosophical reverie, in the course of which I gradually fell fast asleep, as many philosophers of greater note have done in the midst of their reasoning, without being aware of it. The various objects in my room, which had been gradually growing indistinct, as, with heels elevated on the table, I gazed on them "with lack-lustre eye," began to assume new forms; a closet door, which was occasionally illuminated by the flickering blaze of the fire, seemed a mirror of large proportions, and a hat-tree by the side of it was transmuted into a tall man, who seemed to be beckoning to a crowd in a distant corner and inviting them to come and see the images of their minds in his glass. The first who advanced was a gentleman above the middle age, who had much the air of a man of learning; his brow bore the traces of the pucker of attention, his shoulders had a learned stoop, and his eyes seemed much the worse for wear by candlelight; arriving opposite the mirror, he adjusted his spectacles with great deliberation, and commenced the examination with the manner of one, who is determined to see the whole of a thing. The image which was reflected seemed to me odd enough,—it appeared to be an assemblage of patches of different colours and textures attached to an original ground of some flimsy stuff without much order or connexion; one was attached over another, so as in some instances nearly to conceal it, and odd ends were sticking out now and then of the under layers, which seemed fast disappearing under the superincumbent ones. The upper of all was very large, so as to hide a part of almost all the rest. While I was staring at this strange medley, the gentleman in spectacles finished his examination, and retreated with a complimental shake of the head, muttering to himself, "Good! comprehensive, *undique colligamus.*" The next who approached was a young lady of an agreeable appearance. The image which presented itself to her view was in a great measure composed of agreeable qualities. I saw some good temper, considerable wit, a tolerable quantity of judgment, and a ready understanding. The image was deformed however by a pretty large spot of envy. I expected the lady would be somewhat mortified by this; but she did not appear to feel any sensation of that kind. I heard her observe as she left her position, "It is certainly on the whole agreeable, and as to that little spot, I can't think it will ever be noticed." She was followed by a little man with a high cravat, a slender waist, and the whole apparatus of an exquisite. Bowing, with his hand on his breast, to the proprietor of the mirror, he asked, if he "exhibited the

maynd." The answer was by pointing to the mirror, "Well, saar, though these things are not much in my way, I think I will contemplate it;" so saying he advanced to the mirror, "'Pon honour, saar! I think I don't see it." "It is here, sir," said the man, pointing to a very small spot on the glass, somewhat resembling those small bodies called nebulæ by astronomers. "Indeed, saar, and is it?" advancing his eye-glass very near the object; "it 's not large, saar, but I think it exceedingly well made," and he moved off with an air of mild sufficiency.

It would take too much time to enumerate the variety of persons who appeared in succession. Some had one deformity and some another, but they never seemed to regard it, but universally retired with apparent satisfaction. Amongst others I was somewhat amused to see my old friend the Doctor advance to the mirror. Now whatever the old gentleman's body may be,—and surely that is ordinary enough,—his mind certainly was an agreeable object; it was large, well-proportioned, and stuffed full of good qualities; it was only slightly shaded at a corner with dislike to a neighbouring physician. I could not help exclaiming, as I regarded it, "Really, Doctor, you have a finer mind than I supposed." "The d——l I have," was the reply, in a voice which, with the aid of a smart clap on the shoulder, awaked me at once. "Zounds, man! what are you dreaming of," said the Doctor, for it was he *in propriâ personâ*. "Sit down, Doctor," replied I, "and you shall have the whole of it." He was mightily amused with the account, and in conclusion admitted the dislike to his neighbour. "What is the matter with him," said I. "Is he a quack?" "No, sir, the man is regular enough." "Is he dishonest?" "Not at all, I believe he is perfectly upright." "Bad tempered?" "No." "What then is the objection to him?" "Why, sir, he has such a confounded way of wheedling the women, that I can't endure him."

BENEDICTUS.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

ITALY—A CONFERENCE.

A. Why hast thou such a downward look of care,
As if thine eye refused the sweet communion
Of these enchanted skies? I cannot weary
In gazing on them, there is such a clearness
In the mid-noon; and then the calmer hours
Have such a glory round them, that I grow
Enamoured of their clouds. O! they have caught
Their hues in Heaven, and they come stealing to us
Like messengers of love to kindle up

This volatile air. How light and thin it floats—
Methinks I now can pass into the depths
Of yon wide firmament, it lies so open,
And shows so fair. The stars are hung below it,
And they are moving in a vacancy,
Like the poised eagle. How the studded moon,
All dropped with glittering points, rolls on its way
Between the pillowy clouds, and that which seems
A crystalline arch—a dome that rests on air,
Buoyed by its lightness. Can thy heavy eyes
Still pore on the discoloured earth, and choose
Their home in darkness? Something weighs upon thee
With no light burden, if thou hast no heart
To mingle with the beautiful world around thee.

B. Thou talk'st of clouds and skies. Has the sweet face
Of spring a power to charm away the fiends
That riot on the soul? Will the foul spirit
Go, when the cock crows, like a muttering ghost,
To find his kindred shades, and leave the heart
To gladden through the day, and dares he not
To fill it with his terrors, when the Sun
Is out in Heaven? Is there a sovereign balm
In cloudless skies, and bright and glowing noons,
To make the spirit light, and drive from it
The moody madness and the listless sorrow?
I feel there is not. Something tells me, here,
There may be such a grief, that nothing earthly
Hath power to stay it.—I too have a feeling,
How beautiful this clime; and though the native
Looks on it with a blank indifference,
To us who had our birth in clouded skies,
And reckoned it a bright and fortunate day,
If the sun gave us but an hour at noon,
It is indeed a luxury to see
Whole days without a cloud, but these light shapes,
That float around us more like heavenly spirits,
They are so bright, and wear such glorious hues,
Or hang so quietly, and look so pure,
When all is still at noon. O! I have felt
This luxury of sense, but yet it comes not
So far as here. The heart knows nothing of it;
And now that I have seen so many days,
All of an equal brightness, like the calm
That reigns, they say, perpetually in Heaven,
Why—I grow weary of them, and my thoughts
Are on the past. Thou need'st no other answer.

A. 'T is not the barren luxury of sense,
That makes me love these skies—but there is in them
A living spirit. I can feel it stealing
Even to my heart of hearts, and waking there
Feelings, that never yet have stirred within me,
So blessed, that I almost weep to think
How poor my life without them. I now walk
In a glad company of happy visions,
And all the air seems like a dwelling-place
For glorious creatures. Like the shifting waves,
That toss on the white shore, when evening breezes
Steal to the land in summer, they are floating
In airy trains around me. Now they come
Laughing on yonder mountain side, a troop
Of merry nymphs, and now they flit away
Round the far islands of the golden sea,
Islands of light that seem to hang in air,
Midway in heaven. No wonder they so love
The song and dance, and walk with such a look
Of thoughtless gaiety—the merry beggars,
Who breed like insects on these sunny shores,
And live as idly. There are glorious faces
Among them—there are Roman spirits here,
And Grecian eyes that tell a thousand fancies,
Like those that shaped their deities, and wrought
Perfection. True, they have no stirring hopes
To lift them; yet at times they will give vent
To the o'erburdened soul, and then they speak
In oracles, or like the harp of Memnon
They utter poetry, as the bright skies
And stirring winds awake it. Who can wonder,
That every voice is bursting out in music,
And every peasant tunes his mandoline
To the delicious airs, that creep so softly
Into the slumbering ear. O! 'tis a land,
Where life is doubled, and a brighter world
Rolls over this, and there the spirit lives
In a gay paradise, and here we breathe
An atmosphere of roses.

B. Yes—But this
Is nothing to the heart. They never felt,
These summer flies, who buzz so gaily round us,
They never felt, one moment, what we feel
With such a silent tenderness, and keep
So closely round our hearts. We do not wake

The echoes with our loud and thoughtless carols,
Nor sit whole days beneath a bowering vine,
Singing its amber juice, and telling too
Of starry eyes, and soft and languishing looks,
And talking of our agonies with smiles,
Making a sport of sorrow. No, our year,
With its long time of gloom, and hurried days
Of warmth, that call for more of toil than pleasure,
Our pensive year forbids the wandering spirit
To make itself a song-bird. We must keep
Our sorrows and our hopes close cherished by us,
Till the heart softens, and by often musing
Takes a deep, serious tone, and has a feeling
For all that suffer. So we often bear
A grief, that is the burden of a life,
And will not leave us. Something that would seem
Too trifling to be laughed at here, will weigh
And weigh upon us, till we cannot lift it,
And then we pine and die. Her heart is broken,
And the worm feeds upon her early roses,
And now her lily fades, and all its brightness
Turns to a green and sallow melancholy,
And then we strew her grave;—but here the passion
Breaks out in wildness, then is sung away
With a complaining air, and so is ended.
I have no sympathy with such light spirits,
But I can see my sober countrymen
Gather around their winter's hearth, and read
Of no unreal suffering, and then weep
Big tears that ease the heart, and need no words
To make their meaning known. One silent hour
Of deep and thoughtful feeling stands me more,
Than a whole age of such a heartless mirth,
As a bright summer wakens.

P.

ODE TO GREECE.

Hail to thee, Greece!—thy fame is eternal
As the foam-crested sea that embraces thine isles!
Though years have rolled o'er thee, thy bloom is yet vernal,
And beauty still beams through thy tears and thy smiles.

Hail to thee, Greece!—thou art still the bright portal
To those regions that bloom in thy fanciful lore!
Hail to thee, Greece, thy renown is immortal!
Though the songs of thy minstrels proclaim it no more.

Thessalia, thy mountains and vales are still fertile,
The zephyr, fair Tempe, still woos thy embrace;
Thine is the laurel, and thine is the myrtle,
But where is the victor whose brow they should grace?

Where now are those beings, so bright and fantastic,
That peopled thy mountains in fables of yore?—
And Sparta the valiant, and Athens the plastic,—
Those names, once so mighty, are heard of no more.

But weep not for Greece! though her glory has ended,
Though the day of her pride and her freedom has fled,
Though with paynim devotions her worship is blended,
And the mosque is now throng'd in the Parthenon's stead:

For the day may yet come, when her sons and her daughters
Shall leap from their bonds and exult o'er the slain;
When the banners of Freedom shall gleam o'er her waters,
And Minstrelsy wake from her slumbers again.

H.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

An Address in Commemoration of the Sixth of September, 1781, spoken on Groton Heights, Sept. 6, 1825. By William F. Brainard. New London. 1825. 8vo. pp. 32.

While the public celebrations of the past year have produced several of the finest pieces of composition, whereof our literature can boast, it is not to be disguised that there are some very signal exceptions to the general merit of these occasional performances. Among the failures, we feel compelled, by a sense of literary justice, to class the Address before us. The style is throughout quaint, familiar, and colloquial; and the orator skips about from topic to topic in most "admired disorder." His ideas are distinguished by an unaccountable strangeness of conception, and a fantastic oddity of expression, which sometimes even move us to laughter; a sensation, which the scene of the performance, and the event it was intended to commemorate, do not seem very naturally to inspire.

In short, we are sorry to say that we think the oration is beneath the dignity of the occasion and of the press. Our chief reasons for noticing it are, to express our thanks to the kind friend who forwarded to us a copy, and to signify our good wishes for the praiseworthy and patriotic object, which it was written to promote, viz. the erection of a monument on Groton Heights, in commemoration of the massacre at Fort Griswold, and the

burning of New London, during the war of the revolution. Every thing, which has for its end to fix and perpetuate our historic recollections, is entitled to warm encouragement. On this account, the disposition, which is gaining ground, to place durable monuments where the great battles of our freedom were fought, is more especially laudable; for thus will our fathers be duly honoured, and posterity learn to venerate their memories and emulate their example.

A Discourse delivered in the Chapel of Nassau-Hall before the Literary and Philosophical Society of New Jersey, at its first annual meeting, Sept. 27, 1825. By Samuel Miller, D. D. Princeton, N. J. D. A. Borrenstein. 8vo. pp. 39.

A society "for the promotion of useful knowledge, and the friendly and profitable intercourse of the literary and scientific gentlemen of New Jersey," has within a few months been organized; and this discourse, as we learn from its title, was delivered before the members at their first public meeting. We regard every association of this kind as auspicious to the cause of good learning; and particularly so, when it happens, as in this present instance, to be connected with one of our most respectable literary institutions. It must be confessed, that there has usually been in the proceedings of similar associations a large proportion of parade, compared with the real, valuable new inventions and discoveries; still, although the boundaries of science may not be much enlarged by their "official transactions," it is doing much, and doing it in a very agreeable manner, to make distinguished literary and scientific gentlemen acquainted with each other, to promote identity of purpose and good fellowship among them, and on their public anniversaries, to enrich our literature with a discourse like this of Dr Miller, abounding in interesting facts, and full of sound and liberal reflections upon them.

After noticing one or two of the celebrated scientific associations in Europe, and sketching some of the general advantages resulting from them, Dr Miller mentions a few of the most active and important of those formed in our own country. He considers New Jersey as having been singularly negligent in regard to this facility for improvement, as well as in her attention to liberal education generally.

We are, at present, far behind many of our sister States in the proportion of our educated inhabitants. Our population is a little greater than that of Connecticut. That state is nearly on a par with ours, too, in having no large cities, and few cases of great wealth. Yet the number of the sons of Connecticut who receive a liberal education, is four if not six times greater than those of New-Jersey.

Dr Miller then proceeds to point out the objects, to which, in his view, the attention of the "Literary and Philosophicial Society of New Jersey" should be more particularly directed.

Allow me, then, first of all, to say, that the great interests of education appear to me to be among the most radical and important to which our attention can be directed. Our state possesses a large and constantly accumulating common-school fund, which will soon be set in active operation, and possess, we hope, much potency. It is of the utmost importance that a wise system be formed, by means of which this fund shall be made to accomplish, under the Divine blessing, the largest possible amount of benefit to the rising generation, and especially to the children of the poor.

Dr Miller also enumerates "Civil and Political History," "Natural History," "Agriculture and Horticulture," "all the departments of Astronomy, Natural and Experimental Philosophy, and Chemistry," "Legal and Political Science," "Theological and Moral Science," "Medicine," and "Philology and Belles Lettres," as among the objects of the association. We did not take up this discourse with a view to find faults either in the plan or the purposes of the society before whom it was delivered. But if this vast range of subjects constitutes only a part of those to which the attention of the society is to be more particularly directed; we think that, to say the least, the plan is sufficiently comprehensive for the operations of an infant association. One advantage of societies of this kind undoubtedly is, that they act as a sort of lens to concentrate the rays of many minds upon a given point, and thereby produce an intensity, which could not otherwise be created. This advantage in the present instance must be nearly lost, by dividing the attention of the society at once, among so many different topics. But this, we are aware, is no concern of ours. Our fellow-labourers in New Jersey have a right to pursue literature and science according to their own good pleasure; and they will be entitled to the thanks of their country, for whatever they may contribute to the advancement of knowledge in any of the departments embraced within their plan.

While upon the subject of "the great advantages resulting to nations from their progress in the arts and sciences," Dr Miller observes,

Of these advantages, Great Britain has furnished the most signal example. And the distinctness with which, amidst other causes, they may be traced to her progress in Philosophy and the liberal Arts, is too plain to be controverted. Within a little more than the period to which I have alluded, her improvements in agriculture, and, consequently, in the quantity and quality of the products of the soil, have been almost beyond estimate. In consequence of this increase of the means of subsistence, her population has nearly doubled. Her inventions of machinery for saving labour, and of new processes for expedit-

ing and improving manufactures, have been equivalent to the addition of several millions more to the number of her people. The rents and profits of estates have had a corresponding augmentation. New and astonishing sources of wealth, both within and without the bowels of the earth, have been opened. The comforts, and even elegancies of life, have been brought within the reach of multitudes who could not enjoy them before. The wealthy have been far more conveniently and comfortably accommodated, for the same expense, than formerly. The lower classes have been better rewarded for their labour, and, of course, better fed, better clothed, and in every respect better situated than in any preceding times. The national exports have increased in the aggregate, within the period in question, at least fourfold, many of them fifty-fold; and the national income has advanced to an extent once considered as altogether incredible. In short, the progress of that wonderful country, since the principles of science and art have become popular in their culture and applicatiou—her progress in wealth, in refinement, in comfort of living, in power, and in all the means of national elevation, has been the theme of wonder and eulogium with all who have understood, from authentic records, her situation sixty or seventy years ago, and who have been permitted to witness her present condition.

INTELLIGENCE.

GENERAL GOURGAND *versus* COUNT DE SEGUR.

General Gourgand's work, in reply to that of Count de Segur, is in press we understand, and about to be published in this country. The subject of this book, and the circumstances attending its publication in France, may give it temporary interest here; but if the Monthly [London] Review gives it a true character, we cannot rely much upon the authenticity of the facts stated in it, or the impartiality of the writer's inferences from them. "His [General Gourgand's] 'critical examination," says that Journal, "is the most finished piece of hypercriticism we ever read. Every sentence, every syllable of the work of the Count de Segur displeases him. He impugns every fact, he carps at every opinion, he adds an item to or deducts one from every summary" Again: "Gourgand's work consists chiefly of objections such as these, and the most important of which are supported by the *ipse dixit* of the writer alone. The excitation, which the work produced in Paris, is not surprising; but, upon the whole, it contains very little to invalidate the testimony of M. De Segur, or detract from his merit as an able and accomplished writer."

PARIS A SEAPORT.

The wiseacre's plan of going from Calais to Dover by land, having been scouted by government, or at least adjourned until the London experiment under the Thames be tried, another has hatched the noble idea of making Paris a sea-port, or, in other words, making a ship canal from Deippe to Paris. We would recommend the author first to try his hand at the canal from St. Denis to Paris, a short distance of

about four or five miles. They have been about it and about it these seven years, and yet it will not hold water! We recollect the late Mr Brindley was in a similar predicament, and not being able to overcome the difficulty, went to bed, where he lay for three weeks without uttering a sentence in answer to his foreman, who came daily to inquire what was to be done, save "puddle and daub." After keeping his bed three weeks, he conceived the remedy: up he rose and the plan succeeded to his wishes. His secret has evidently not crossed the channel; for all the ingenuity of the French engineers has not yet enabled them to make this imp of a canal hold water.

PERCIVAL'S POEMS.

Mr John Miller, New Bridge Street, London, has published an edition of Percival's Poems in 2 vols. post 8vo. He has also brought out within a short time editions of Jefferson's "Notes on Virginia;" "Europe, by a Citizen of the United States;" and Everett's "New Ideas on Population."

A NEW INVENTION.

An artizan in the Canton of Vaud, Switzerland, has invented a mechanical contrivance to supply the place of a *forearm* lost by the bursting of a musket. It is so perfect that the maimed person is able to use a spade, to dress vines, to work at smithery, to use a knife and fork simultaneously at table, &c. The name of the inventor is Taillefer.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

The American Journal of Science and Arts; conducted by Benjamin Silliman. Vol. X. No. I. For October, 1825. New Haven. S. Converse.

ASTRONOMY.

An Essay on Planetary Motion. By James Sims. 8vo. pp. 8 Cincinnati, Ohio.

The Newtonian system supposes that the planets are kept from falling to the sun, and made to revolve in their orbits by a projectile force. The existence of this projectile force, Mr James Sims (we suppose he is some nephew or cousin of the celebrated John Cleves Symmes) shows to be absurd. He then explains his own hypothesis, which accounts as well for the diurnal as the annual motion of the earth, the former of which Newton never could account for.

He says that modern chemistry demonstrates that all substances are capable of existing in three different states, solid, fluid, and gaseous. He says, also, that none are so ignorant as not to know that it is the nature of vapour and gas to fly away from the heat which produces them. He then supposes "the earth to be placed in a situation naturally resulting from the absence of heat," and to be approaching the sun by his attraction. When it comes within the influence of his heat, a part of the earth's substance would be changed into vapour and gas. "This is primitive motion." This

vapour constitutes the atmosphere, and having a tendency to fly away from the heat which produces it, it moves in a tangent to the earth's surface, and carries the earth with it, and thus makes it revolve on its axis. This motion, once begun, must be constantly kept up; for new vapours being continually formed, are forced into the atmosphere, (the atmosphere resisting them by its weight, not causing them to rise by its greater specific gravity), keeps it in motion. And the motion is from west to east, because the parts most heated are about 45° east of the vertical sun. He does not explain why it took its present direction rather than the other in the first instance.

The planets, by this theory, are kept from approaching nearer to the sun, by the same cause, viz ; the tendency of vapour to fly from the heat which produces it. And the author takes the opportunity to laugh at "the folly of the calculations of the old school on the hypothesis of the earth's falling to the sun"—"which," he says, "would be just as natural as for the smoke to fall back into the fire that produces it." To account for the movement which produces the seasons, he finds a very simple method on the same principles, to make the earth vibrate back and forth so as to present the poles alternately to the sun. He is able also to apply his theory very happily to the movement of the secondary planets, by assuming as an axiom, that secondary planets must be acted upon by secondary causes.

This mode of moving the world, if not the true one, is certainly a very good one. We think, however, there is one other mode still better; and if that awkward machine had been made in modern days, the method would doubtless have been adopted. That is, to move it by *steam*. Indeed we are not quite sure but this is the case, and wonder that it did not occur to Mr Sims, for the hollow in the earth, discovered by his uncle, would make an excellent boiler; and the mode of getting in the light, would answer as well to convey the heat, which might be made intense by a proper disposition of the reflectors. This, by the way, is an excellent hint to geologists; and will enable them to explain earthquakes, volcanoes, boiling springs, and various other phenomena, as easily as the blowing up of steam-boats.

DRAMA.

The Forest Rose, or American Farmers. A Pastoral Opera; in two Acts; as performed at the Chatham Theatre, New York. By Samuel Woodworth, author of the "Deed of Gift," &c. &c. Music by John Davies, Esq. New York. E. M. Murden.

EDUCATION.

Second Class Book, principally consisting of Historical, Geographical, and Biographical Lessons, adapted to the capacities of Youth, and designed for their improvement. By A. T. Lowe, M. D. 12mo. pp. 222. Brookfield. A. & G. Merriam.

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The Pronouncing Spelling Book, adapted to Walker's Critical Pronouncing Dictionary; in which the precise sound of every syllable is accurately conveyed, in a manner perfectly intelligible to every capacity, &c. By J. A. Cummings. Revised and improved from the fourth edition. 12mo. pp. 168. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

English Grammar, adapted to the different Classes of Learners; with an Appendix, containing Rules and Observations for assisting the more

advanced Students to write with perspicuity and accuracy. By Lindlay Murray. 12mo. pp. 339. Boston. T. Bedlington.

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GEOGRAPHY.

An Introduction to Ancient and Modern Geography. To which are added Rules for Projecting Maps, and the Use of Globes. Accompanied with an Ancient and Modern Atlas. By J. A. Cummings. Tenth edition revised and improved. 12mo. pp. 204. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

HISTORY.

The History of Kentucky, by Humphrey Marshall, including the Ancient Annals of that State. By C. S. Rafinesque. 2 vols. 8vo. Price $4.

LAW.

A Treatise on the Law of Descents in the several United States of America. By Tapping Reeve, Esq. 8vo. pp. 515. New York. Collins & Hannay.

An Abridgment of the Acts of Congress, now in force, excepting those of Private and Local Application; with Notes of Decisions, giving Construction to the same, in the Supreme Court of the United States; and a copious Index. By Edward Ingersoll, Esq. Royal 8vo. pp. 800. Philadelphia. Towar & Hogan.

MEDICINE.

Elements of Therapeutics and Materia Medica; to which are prefixed two Discourses of the History and Improvements of the Materia Medica, originally delivered as Introductory Lectures. By N. Chapman, M. D. Professor of the Institutes and Practice of Physic and Clinical Practice in the University of Pennsylvania. Fourth edition revised and enlarged. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

An Essay on the Remote and Proximate Causes of Phthisis Pulmonalis; being an Essay to which the Prize was adjudged for the year 1825, by the New York State Medical Society. By Andrew Hammersley, M. D. With a few Explanatory Notes. 8vo. Philadelphia. James Webster.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An Address pronounced at the Opening of the New York High School; with Notes and Illustrations. By John Griscom. 12mo. pp. 200. New York.

Analytical Outlines of the English Language, or a Cursory Examination of its Materials and Structure. In the form of Familiar Dialogues, intended to accompany Grammatical Studies. By John Lewis. New York.

A Lecture on Human Happiness, comprehending a General Review

of the Causes of the Existing Evils of Society, and a Development of Means by which they may be permanently and effectually removed. By John Gray. 8vo. Philadelphia. Price 19 cents.

A Discourse dilivered in the Chapel of Nassau Hall, before the Literary and Philosophical Society of New Jersey, at its first meeting, September 27th, 1825. By Samuel Miller, D. D. Princeton. D. A. Borrenstein. 8vo. pp. 39.

The Guide to Health. Designed to promote the Health, Happiness, and Longevity of Students and all others in Sedentary Life, and especially Invalids. By Daniel Newell. 18mo. pp. 84. Boston. S. T. Farren.

An Oration pronounced at Middlebury, before the Associated Alumni of the College, on the Evening of Commencement, August 17th, 1825. By Nathan S. S. Beman. 8vo. pp. 40. Troy, N. Y. Tuttle & Richards.

The Gentlemen's Annual Pocket Remembrancer, for the year 1826. 18mo. pp. 173. Philadelphia. R. H. Small.

The American Ladies' Pocket Book, for 1826. 18mo. pp. 160. Philadelphia. R. H. Small.

NOVELS.

The Mysterious Picture. By Wrangham Fitz Ramble, Esq. 8vo. New York. Collins & Hannay.

POLITICS.

A Few Reflections of a Cool-minded Man on the Present Judiciary System of Kentucky. 8vo. pp. 12.

THEOLOGY.

A Sermon, on the Introduction to the Gospel of St John. By the Rev. Samuel Gilman. 8vo. pp. 16. Charleston, S. C. C. C. Selring.

Prayers and Sermons, by John N. Maffit, delivered in the City of Philadelphia, October, 1825. Taken in short-hand, by T. C. Gould. 8vo. Philadelphia. Marot & Walker. Price 25 cents.

The Address of the Executive Committee of the American Tract Society to the Christian Public, together with a Brief Account of the Formation of the Society, its Constitution, and Officers. New York. D. Fanshaw.

A Pastoral Letter to the Members of the Protestant Episcopal Church in South Carolina. By Nathaniel Bowen, D. D., Bishop of said Church. 8vo. Charleston A. E. Miller.

A Sermon, preached at St. Philip's Church, August 21, 1825, by Christopher E. Gadsden, on the occasion of the Decease of Gen. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney. 8vo. pp. 31. Charleston, S. C. A. E. Miller.

A Brief Outline of the Evidences of the Christian Religion. By Archibald Alexander, Professor of Didactic Theology in the Theological Seminary at Princeton, N. J. Second edition. 12mo. pp. 251. Princeton. D. A. Borrenstein.

We noticed the merits of this valuable, though unpretending book, in a late number of our work; and are glad to perceive that the public reception of it has justified the publisher in bringing out another edition so soon. It is now, in this second edition, printed upon a good paper, and with a larger and fairer type; and is executed throughout in a style much to our taste.

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A Treatise on Derangements of the Liver, Internal Organs, and Nervous System; Pathological and Therapeutical. By James Johnson, M. D. author of the "Influence of Tropical Climates on European Constitutions," &c. First American from the second London edition. 8vo. pp. 221. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

Napoleon and the Grand Army in Russia; or a Critical Examination of Count Philip De Segur's Work. By General Gourgand, late First Officer of Ordnance, and Aide-de-camp to the Emperor Napoleon. Translated from the French by a gentleman of Philadelphia. 8vo. Philadelphia. A. Finley.

The Scottish Chiefs, a Romance. By Miss Jane Porter, author of "Thaddeus of Warsaw." 3 vols. 18mo. Exeter. Gerrish & Tyler.

The Ancient History of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Medes and Persians, Macedonians, and Grecians. By Charles Rollin. Translated from the French. Illustrated with Maps and Plates. Revised and corrected from the last London edition. 8 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia. W. W. Woodward.

C. Cornelii Taciti Historiarum Libri Quinque; cum Libro de Germania, et Vita Agricolæ, cum notis Barbou. 12mo. pp. 299. New York. S. King.

The Works of Flavius Josephus, the Learned and Authentic Jewish Historian and celebrated Warrior. To which are added three Dissertations, concerning Jesus Christ, John the Baptist, James the Just, God's Command to Abraham, &c. With and an Index to the whole. Translated by William Whiston, A. M. 4 vols. 8vo. Philadelphia. W. W. Woodward.

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Domestic Medicine, or a Treatise on the Prevention and Cure of Diseases by Regimen and Simple Medicines; containing a Dispensatory for the use of Private Practitioners. By William Buchan, M. D. &c. To which is added a Family Herbal. A new edition, revised and amended; by John G. Coffin, M. D. Fellow of the Massachusetts Medical Society. 8vo. pp. 652. Boston. Phelps & Farnham and N. S. Simpkins.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. III. DECEMBER 15, 1825. No. 6.

REVIEWS.

1. *A Digest of reported Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Judicial Court of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.* By LEWIS BIGELOW, Counsellor at Law. Boston. Wells & Lilly. 1825. 8vo. pp. lxxxii & 856.
2. *Digest of the Cases decided in the Supreme Judicial Court of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, from March, 1816, to October, 1823, inclusive; as contained in the five last volumes of Tyng's, and the first of Pickering's Reports; with the Names of the Cases and a Table of the Titles and References. To which is added, a digested Index of the Names of the Cases in the eighteen volumes of Massachusetts Reports.* By THERON METCALF.

Cavendum autem est, ne summæ istæ reddant homines promptos ad practicam, cessatores in scientiâ ipsâ.—*Lord Bacon.*

Boston. Richardson & Lord. 1825. 8vo. pp. 513.

THE first of these works contains an abridgment of all the adjudged cases contained in the eighteen volumes of Massachusetts Reports, it being an improved edition of the Digest formerly published by the same author, and having incorporated in it the cases reported since the date of the original compilation. The second work is in the nature of a continuation of Bigelow's first edition, comprising only the cases subsequently reported, and forming in conjunction with it a digest of the entire series of eighteen volumes. The legal profession in Massachusetts are particularly under obligations to Mr Bigelow for conceiving and executing the plan of his Digest, which is invaluable as a con-

venient and well arranged index to a great body of expository law. In his last work, he has corrected some of the errors which had escaped his attention in compiling the first, and has altered the minor details to advantage. There is one defect in it, however, which renders a little caution necessary in the use of it. The author does not, as we conceive, draw the line with sufficient distinctness between the points of a case which are solemnly decided as law, and the *obiter dicta* of the court, their queries, extrajudicial remarks, and opinions delivered *arguendo*. Mr Metcalf is exceedingly happy and judicious in making this very proper distinction. Indeed, in this respect, as in his language, style, arrangement, and in other things, more of the book-learning of the deeply read lawyer is plainly to be discerned in Mr Metcalf's book than in Mr Bigelow's. Both works, however, are entitled to uncommon praise, as well for their general method, as for the merit of the execution.

The maxim adopted by Mr Metcalf for his motto conveys a very salutary caution to those, who resort to digests for aid in the prosecution of legal inquiries. But we do not concur in the opinion, which many advance, that the proper use of digests and abridgments of law, which has grown so prevalent, tends or threatens to diminish the erudition of the bar. These *laudatores temporis acti*, who lament the day when Blackstone had not lectured, nor the admirable modern digests been compiled, forget the endless multiplicity of reported cases which the thoroughly educated lawyer must have within the call of his memory. The truth is, that digests and abridgments, while they increase beyond conception the number of persons out of the profession who know something of that whereby all their actions are regulated, and the number of persons in the profession who know a great deal of the science which they profess, do not in the least diminish the class of profound legal scholars, the ornaments and supporters of jurisprudence. Praiseworthy ambition united with great capacity will produce the same effects now, that it has done in less enlightened ages; it will stimulate men to augmented exertions, and will lift them to extraordinary eminence. Every thing calculated to facilitate their studies will accelerate, not retard, their progress in improvement. And in proportion as conveniences for the study of law are multiplied, and a certain degree of learning becomes more common, they who aspire to the higher walks of professional merit, will discover the necessity of additional effort in order to attain a relative superiority in excellence.

We embrace the opportunity offered us in this article to suggest a desirable change in the method of publishing the law-reports in this Commonwealth. The course now pursued of issuing them only in volumes, and retaining the matter in the hands of the reporter or publisher until enough has accumulated to compose the complete volume, greatly detracts from the benefit of the publication. The interval between successive emissions being generally upwards of a year, sometimes two years, it always happens that the members of the profession are kept much behind the progress of legal decision. They have no convenient or sure means of ascertaining the principles of law which are settled from term to term in their respective counties, but through the printed reports. Now it is plain that a large portion of the cases ultimately decided in the last resort by the full court, contain points, which previously were either doubtful, or to say the least, questionable; otherwise it is not presumable that the cases would be reserved by counsel under the sanction of the judges. But when once determined, and upon proper investigation, they cease to be matters of litigation or dispute, and become the law of the land. Many of them are of course such that, until so fixed, reasonable doubt concerning the final decision may be entertained by the ablest lawyers, and still more by the young, the precipitate, the ill-informed, the indolent, the undiscerning,—all those who are prone to judge hastily or incorrectly on subjects, which in fact require the best exercise of the understanding. Hence an action is, not unfrequently, commenced or defended against, nay sometimes entered in the lower courts for trial, and prosecuted with great expense, when the principles of the law which govern it have already been settled in a similar case in some other county, but the decision has not come to the knowledge of the profession in general, who seldom practise out of their own county. This evil might easily be remedied by publishing the reports in numbers, to be bound together when the volume shall have been completed. The Suffolk cases, for instance, might be published each summer, and the cases decided on the fall circuit in the winter following; which would enable the bar, all over the commonwealth, to keep even pace with the advancement of the law. Add to this, that the cases would be far more diligently and profitably studied, if published in small numbers, than it is likely they will be when issued in a ponderous volume. They will possess all the zest of novelty, and the interest of a pamphlet, to that whole class of men, whose business it is to become acquainted with them;

whereas to examine critically, and to fix in the memory a very great number of important cases printed at the same time, is no trifling task for the intellect. We make these intimations with perfect friendliness to the state-reporter, whose interest we think would be materially promoted by the change; and who, in the volume which he has already published, has discharged his duty in such manner as to deserve the applause and confidence of the profession.

Reform of Harvard College.

[Concluded from page 171.]

It may fairly be asked, in what way the change from residence to non-residence of the Fellows of the College proceeded. The earliest records are known to be imperfect, but we shall state our view of this subject. The Charter provided five Fellows, besides the President and Treasurer. Five Fellows with the President were, of course, not wanted for instruction; and two or three of the Fellows must have either been employed in other small posts of the College, or have been merely resident graduates. The funds of the College were exceedingly limited; and it must have immediately appeared, that all that could possibly be compassed, was to support the President and such Fellows as were needed "to carry on the College work." The first step therefore probably was, to leave vacancies in the Corporation unfilled. We find, in 1664, but four Fellows, and in 1667, but three. Up to 1672 (with the exception of Mr Danforth's case, which has been considered, and Mr Mather's, who left the country a month or two after the Charter of 1650) we find on the list of Fellows contained in the College Catalogue, no one supposed to be non-resident. Even Mr Mitchell, one of the charter Fellows, who became the minister of Cambridge, ceased to be a Fellow. In the Charter of 1672, the ministers of Cambridge, Roxbury, and Charlestown (the three nearest, before the erection of the Boston bridges), and the two Tutors were constituted the Corporation. It is very important to observe, that when non-residence, on the part of the Corporation, began, it was not to the exclusion of the resident instructers. The two Tutors were, we believe, without exception, members of the Corporation up to 1697, as were also two individuals, severally called "a probationer Fel-

low" and a "Fellow on the place," either immediately on their election, or shortly after. The authority of Randolph, that there were in 1676 four Fellows with salaries, who were also Tutors, is quoted, to prove, that at this time, there were Tutors who were not Fellows; it being certain that three of the Fellows were then non-resident. But as to the number of Tutors, Randolph is evidently in error; for it was about forty years later, before they amounted to four. In 1697, the College, having considerably increased, a third Tutor was chosen. The then existing Charter,—one of President Leverett's "precarious Charters,"—creating a Corporation of *fourteen*, of which two Tutors only (all that there were, when the Charter was framed) were members, the third Tutor, when elected in 1697, was not a member of the Corporation. It being the practice, after Fellows began to be chosen out of the limits of the College, to make the pastor of the church of Cambridge one, and the Treasurer being also for a long time a resident of Cambridge, five out of the seven members of the board resided in or near the College walls, and three of these five being for a long time *the whole*, and for a much longer time the *major part* of the resident instructers, the evil of non-residence existed in a very mild form; and as a very striking illustration of this, it may be added, that no separate record of the immediate academic board, apart from the records of the Corporation, was kept, we believe, till the close of President Leverett's administration. We have already stated, that so late as 1707, the technical names of these two sorts of Fellows were not fixed; for President Leverett calls Mr Hobart, the settled minister of Newtown, a Fellow of the house; and Hutchinson, apparently quoting the public records, says, that the College was put under President Leverett, "agreeably to the choice of the *Fellows of the house*, approbation of the Overseers," &c.* For the first years of Leverett's presidency, there were but three Tutors; and two of them were members of the Corporation. It was not till the fourth Tutor was chosen; and an attempt was made by the Corporation to limit the election of "Fellows of the house," as they now called them, to three years, that the question began to be sifted, whether the ancient Charter, so long disused and violated, had in 1707 been restored in whole or only in part.

There were three topics, in reference to which this question was agitated. As the whole subject is closely connected with

*Hutchinson, I. 175.

the argument, and has not been stated in any of the publications, we shall lay before our readers a rapid but faithful sketch of the course of proceedings.

In the beginning of 1722, the five Fellows of the Corporation, so called, were Dr Appleton of Cambridge, Dr Colman and Mr Wadsworth of Boston, Mr. Stevens of Charlestown, and Mr Tutor Flynt. There were three other Tutors not members of the Corporation. Mr Stevens of Charlestown died, and the Tutors preferred a memorial to the Corporation and Overseers, praying that the vacancy might be filled up by a resident. The memorial to the Overseers was presented to that body, by Chief Justice Sewall, the oldest Counsellor, in early life for many years a resident Fellow of the Corporation, a graduate under the old Charter of 1650, at the time of which we speak Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, on the bench of which he had sat thirty years. By him was the memorial of the resident Tutors presented, and to a committee, of which he was chairman, was it referred. On the 23d of January, 1722, the Corporation met to fill up the vacancy; and, disregarding the claim of the residents, adroitly chose the Rev. Dr Sewall of the Old South, the son of the Chief Justice, who, as chairman of the committee of the Overseers, and from his great weight of character, might be considered as holding the fate of the Tutors' petition in his hands. Dr Sewall was presented to the Overseers for concurrence. The Overseers thought it neither "indelicate nor unwise," to entertain the question submitted to them by the residents, and returned for answer to the Corporation, that they had received a memorial on the subject of the vacancy, and must await the result. On the 9th of March ensuing, a report was presented by the venerable Chief Justice, that "the Overseers judge it proper that the vacancy in the Corporation be filled up by the election of a resident Fellow." This report was debated in the Overseers, of which body Dr Colman, Dr Appleton, Mr Wadsworth, and President Leverett, being four out of six of the Corporation, were also members, and of course enjoyed an opportunity of being heard against it; nevertheless the report was accepted by the board.

This report, thus accepted, was sent down to the Corporation; they entered a protest against it in their journals, but nevertheless chose Mr Tutor Robie.

Here then (to pause a moment in the narrative) is a full precedent, of one hundred years standing, in favour of the memorialists at the present day. A vacancy existed in the

Corporation; the Tutors address the Corporation and the Overseers, and tell them they think the Charter intended the members of the Corporation to be resident; the Corporation, disregarding their statement, choose a gentleman of signal piety and prudence, the pastor as well as the son of the chairman of the Overseers' committee, to whom the Tutors' statement is referred; this committee report, that it is proper to choose a resident Fellow; and the Overseers, instead of concurring in the choice made by the Corporation, adopt this report, against which four out of the five surviving members of the Corporation, had the opportunity of being heard; and in consequence of this step a Tutor was chosen. And yet it is constantly said, that when the pretensions of the present memorialists were started one hundred years ago, as soon as the Corporation were heard, they prevailed. But to return to the narrative; the Overseers were not satisfied with an acquiescence in fact, on the part of the Corporation, which was guarded by a *caveat* as to the principle. Accordingly, when Tutor Robie's election came up from the Corporation, the Overseers refused to confirm him, till the subject of the Tutor's memorial was settled on principle. At this meeting of the Overseers, the non-resident members of the Corporation were present, they were heard against the Tutors' petition in a long debate which arose, and the Governor broke up the meeting without any decision.

On the 28th of April, the controversy returned in another and slightly different form. The Corporation, in the gradual progress of assuming power, had introduced a rule, that Fellows of the house, as they were now called, should be subject to a triennial re-election. Mr Tutor Sever's second term of three years expiring on the 28th of April, the Corporation voted (such are the pains and penalties of memorializing) that he should no longer be a Fellow of the house. This gentleman had already been a settled minister at Dover, New Hampshire; an impediment in his speech induced him to leave the desk, and he is the same individval who afterwards, in a civil career, reached the years and reputation of a patriarch, in Plymouth county, the Honourable Nicholas Sever. This "discontented Tutor," as he has been called in this discussion, in a pet at being turned out of his daily bread, presented a memorial to the Overseers, invoking their protection. Previous to the meeting of the Overseers, the Corporation met and took order for a counter memorial. On the 13th of June, the Overseers met, the subject was considered, the Corporation, by the non-resident members of it, again enjoyed

the opportunity of being heard, and the question was settled by the vote of the Overseers, "that the said Mr Sever still continues a Fellow, notwithstanding what has been done with reference to him by the Corporation." When this vote was sent down to the Corporation, they protested, entered a saving clause, and submitted.

Here we may pause again in the narrative, to point out a second distinct precedent in favour of the memorialists of the present day. The Corporation undertook to act upon their distinction fixed, but not yet well rooted, of Fellows of the Corporation and Fellows of the house, by subjecting the latter to a triennial re-election by the former. The Overseers, justly feeling that there was no authority in the Charter for a triennial re-election of Fellows, resisted the attempt to put it in practice. But if, as is now urged, a Fellow of the house was merely a Tutor, no reason,—good or bad,—can be given, why the Corporation might not elect him triennially or oftener.

But the Overseers felt the perplexity of the state, in which the College stood. By acting in concurrence with the Corporation, consisting, as it did, of a majority of non-residents, they recognised them as a legal Corporation; at the same time, that when the question was formally presented to them, they had decided that the Tutors were Fellows by permanent tenure, and that it was proper to fill vacancies in the Corporation by choosing residents. It was not easy for the Overseers, under the provisions of the Charter, to extricate the College or themselves from the confused situation, into which silent encroachment on the principles of the Charter had brought them. Two courses presented themselves, one to procure a new Charter, enlarging the Corporation, so that the residents should be brought in; the other simply enacting that the old Charter of 1650 should be rigidly enforced, and that the resident Fellows should be the Corporation. A majority of the Overseers, and even the non-resident members of the Corporation (as they say themselves in their memorial the next year) were in favour of the first course; the public, and especially the profession, of the second. The thing had been long debated, the non-resident members of the Corporation had had an opportunity of being heard on three several occasions upon it; and it was ripe for legislative decision. The Overseers sent in a memorial to the Court on the 13th of June, praying "that the number of the Corporation might be enlarged, and that in so doing regard be had to the resident Fellows or Tutors, that they be of the number." This memo-

rial was referred to that most respectable Committee, of whom we have already spoken, ten in number, and five of them members of the Overseers. In a question which had been so often agitated by the Overseers, and which now came before them by a memorial of that body, the visiters of the College, the Committee, half of whose number were Overseers, before whom the Corporation had already had at least three opportunities of being heard, proceeded, without calling upon the Corporation for a new argument, to make their report, which was as ample as language could make it, covering the whole ground of the controversy, in the following terms:

"The Committee appointed to consider the Memorial of the Overseers of Harvard College in Cambridge, having perused and considered the Charter granted to the said College, by the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay in the year 1650, (which is their present constitution,) and also the Memorial aforesaid, came to the following resolutions, which being put in practice would answer the end of the Memorial and be more beneficial to that Society, than enlarging the number of the Corporation.

1. That it was the intent of the said College Charter, that the Tutors of the said College, or such as have the instruction and government of the Students, should be the Fellows and members of the Corporation of the said College, provided they exceed not five in number.

2. That none of the said Fellows be Overseers.

3. That the said President and Fellows of the said College, or the major part of them, are not warranted by the said Charter of the College to fix or establish any salary or allowance for their services, without the consent of the Overseers."

This report was made in the Council. The Council, being Overseers, out of delicacy desired the House to act first. The House accepted the report, and passed a resolution in conformity. The Council (a majority of the Overseers) concurred, and the Governor signed his name to the resolution, adding, however, a proviso, that the three present non-residents should not lose their seats. This proviso was unconstitutional, the Governor having no power with regard to bills, but to sign them or not sign them. For, if after signing,—which completes the enactment,—he had power to subjoin a proviso inconsistent with the terms of the act, he would possess himself the sole power of repealing or suspending laws. The proviso was absurd, for what can be more idle, than for a governor to sign a law, subjoining a proviso inconsistent with it. The only course

he could reasonably and constitutionally have taken, would have been, to return the bill with his reasons, leaving the Houses to re-enact it, with the proviso, if they chose.

On the point of this proviso, the House and the Governor went into a war of messages, in the progress of which the Council, as was to be expected, fell in with the Governor; but adopted at first the course of postponement, rather than break with the House by a non-concurrence. After some delay, Messrs Sever and Welsted, whose rights were at stake, urged the House by a memorial, and the House urged the Council to proceed. The latter, backed by the Governor, still held out; the Corporation, now stepped in, and wanted to be heard; the house refused, and, on a repetition of the request, refused unanimously; the Council then alone gave the Corporation the opportunity of a hearing, the fourth which they had enjoyed before that body, and then non-concurred in the resolution of the House.

How then was the thing settled? In point of strict law it was settled in favour of the Tutors. For the Governor's signature constituted the resolution of the two Houses a law, which his proviso could not repeal; and which no subsequent law has repealed. In point of form, in consequence of the controversy about this proviso, it was never settled at all. The law was signed, though with a proviso; and no legislative act was ever passed repealing that proviso, nor did the Governor ever recall it. But how was the principle settled? By unanimous consent in favour of the residents. The Representatives, the Council, the Governor, the Overseers, (for the Governor stated, that they had advised him to sign with this proviso,) every man in fact in Massachusetts Bay, with the exception of the majority of the Corporation, was in favour of the principle. How was the fact settled? By choosing Tutor Robie to the first vacancy in the Corporation, Professor Wigglesworth to the second, and Tutor Sever to the third.

We have an additional remark to make with respect to the hearing, had by the Corporation before the Council, and the supposed effect of that hearing, in procuring the non-concurrence of the Council. It has been said, that in this hearing, the Corporation brought forward important and convincing matter from their old and now lost records, and that the effect was decisive in their favour. But, as we have seen, the disagreement had already arisen between the House and the Council, the latter naturally taking the government side. The Council had already for two sessions eluded the resolution of the House, by postponement.

As to the facts supposed to have been brought forward by the Corporation, their memorial, which was read at this hearing, is still in existence, and speaks for itself. A duller piece of prose we never perused. Instead of containing, from records now lost, important matter bearing on the question; it does not give nearly the strength of the argument on their own side, as it may be stated at the present day. We hazard nothing in saying, that in any one paragraph of Mr Justice Story's speech, there was more cogent argument on the same side of the question, than in all this memorial. And reason good. The Corporation did not appeal to their ancient records for any facts, because the facts were against them. Why did they not produce a list of non-resident Fellows under the first Charter; would they not have done it if they could? Why did they not name Mr Danforth's case? There were living, those who took their degrees before his death. We submit to the impartial, that this negative testimony is very strong to the absence in the ancient records of any facts in favour of their argument.

An opinion can now be formed, how justly these transactions, from first to last, have been ascribed to the uneasiness of two discontented Tutors, assisted by an "unholy faction" in the House, countenanced by the Council, till the opposite side of the question was heard, and then put down. It can now be judged with what propriety the result is called a triumph for the Corporation.

During the discussions, an event took place, which had nearly settled the question on a safe basis, by a salutary precedent. The professorship of Divinity was founded. A chief objection, no doubt, to the introduction of all the Tutors into the Corporation had been, that most of them were, from the nature of the case, young men, not permanently settled at College. The foundation of a professorship provided for the permanent establishment of an instructer of higher rank; Mr Wigglesworth was immediately chosen a Fellow of the Corporation; and a law was passed, and for seventy years observed, that "the Professor of Divinity should always be a Fellow of the Corporation."* The next professorship founded was that of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. The first incumbent on that foundation,—however

* Such a law very strongly illustrates the sense, which even the Corporation had of the expediency of resident members of that board, whenever individuals of age and permanent tenure in office could be procured. They did not content themselves with electing the Professor of Divinity, but ordained that this professor should always be a member of the Corporation.

skilful in his department,—was not of a character to fit him for the Corporation, and the precedent of the Professor of Divinity was not followed. Still, however, a sort of compromise prevailed, by which sometimes three, and generally two of the Corporation, were resident, till the period of the revolution.

It remains only to consider the argument against the Memorial, drawn from the guaranty of the privileges and property of the Corporation, by the Constitution of the Commonwealth. It is said, that when this guaranty was made by the people, four out of five of the Fellows were non-resident, and this argument is pronounced irresistible. We apprehend it to be otherwise.

The Constitution confirms "the President and Fellows of Harvard College in their corporate capacity, their officers and servants, in all the powers, authorities, rights, liberties, privileges, immunities, and franchises, which they now have, or are entitled to have." *No persons are named;* no persons are confirmed in the office of President or Fellows. Though each of those offices had been vacant, not a word would have required to be altered in this chapter of the constitution, which would still have guarantied to the President and Fellows the *rights* which they now have or are entitled to have. It was not surely the object of the framers of the Constitution to sift the titles of the corporators individually to their seats. There would have been inconsistency, nay, possible contradiction in it. For having confirmed and established the Charter, it was conceivable that by the conditions of the Charter, some one or more of the Fellows were not entitled to a seat. To say that the actual incumbents were confirmed as Fellows, is to say, that, in the very moment of establishing the Charter, the Constitution declared that its provisions should not be enforced, if they happened to militate with the continuance of any one of these five gentlemen in their seats. The Constitution confirmed the citizens of the state, each in the enjoyment of his property. Can it be supposed that such confirmation was designed as a bar to legal investigation, in each single case, who might or might not be in rightful possession? The very terms of the grant to the Fellows go only to their "authorities, rights, liberties, privileges, immunities, and franchises," not to wrongs, abuses, or violations of Charter. The question, therefore, remains to be settled, what their rights were? It is too much to say that the Corporation were confirmed in any thing and every thing, they might happen rightfully or wrongfully to claim or actually possess.

Further, taking this confirmation in all its parts, it is by no means the unconditional and unlimited grant, that it has been represented. The donations of the various benefactors to College are confirmed, not simply and positively, but "according to the *true intent* and meaning of the donor, or donors," &c. And shall the true intent and meaning of every little gift, of a few acres of land and a few pounds of money, be sacred, and the true intent and meaning of the Charter itself, the great gift, the foundation of all others, the government's gift, shall not that be respected? Moreover, at this day, when there are no Fellows but those of the Corporation, how, we would fain be informed, is the enacting clause of the Charter fulfilled, which declares one of the objects, for which the Charter was given, to be, "the maintenance of the President and Fellows?" Is any one of the five Fellows now maintained, in whole or in part?

Again, the Constitution, after this so much cited confirmation, provides, that "Nothing herein shall be construed, to prevent the legislature of this Commonwealth, from making such alterations in the government of the said University, as shall be conducive to its advantage, &c.—in as full a manner as might have been done by the legislature of the late province of Massachusetts Bay." Now the most signal and notorious instance of interference, exercised by the provincial legislature, was that of 1722–23, when they asserted the *intent* of the Charter against its actual *interpretation*. No one doubted their right to take this course. It was not alleged by the Corporation, that they exceeded their powers; the Council, forming a majority of the Overseers, concurred in the act, by which the house of representatives had set up the *intent* against the *received interpretation* of the Charter. Now the Constitution reserves to the legislature all the powers of the provincial assembly; and therefore reserves to it the power of saying that the Fellows ought to reside. The Constitution of the State has not therefore immutably guarantied the non-residence of the Fellows.

We have now gone through the main argument. We designed to follow Mr Ticknor through that part of his remarks, where he separately inquires, whether a Fellow must be resident, must instruct or govern, and must receive a stipend;—and answer in the negative, except to the last inquiry. The argument principally turns on the usage of the English colleges, and the memorialists are represented as reasoning from the alleged nature of fellowships there to a similar import of the office of fellow here. It is sufficient, however, if the memorialists show that Fellow was a

technical term in the English colleges, at the time the Charter was given, and that residence and maintenance were part of the technical idea. The duty of the Fellows to govern the institution is prescribed by the Charter of Harvard College, and their duty to instruct will depend in Harvard, as well as in the English colleges, on their being designated to it. The statute of admitting Fellows in our College, prescribed that they should instruct those committed to them. If none were committed, they would have none to instruct.

It would be next in order, to argue the question of *expediency*, and this we had intended to do as fully at least as we have done that of *right;* and with the greater earnestness, as we are convinced that it is not only expedient but essential to the welfare of the College, that the principle of the Memorial should be substantially acted upon in its organization. We have, however, extended our remarks as far as the limits of this Gazette will, at present, admit. The principle of expediency is very strongly stated in Mr Norton's speech; and we do not find any thing in Mr Ticknor's pamphlet, which invalidates that statement. We do not mean to say by this, that Mr Ticknor has not urged the matter of inexpediency with great ability. But he urges it chiefly on the principle, that the selfish and corrupt propensities and the infirmities of human nature would lead the resident instructers (if they formed the Corporation) to avail themselves of their power, chiefly for the purpose of ordaining for themselves lighter duties and larger salaries. A more liberal and, we think, as sound a course of argument would be, to assume that the members of the Corporation, whether resident or not, would act with honour, conscience, and principle. If you depart from this ground, then it is quite easy to show great evils which will result to the College from the play of the selfish and corrupt passions and the infirmities of our nature, on the part of non-resident as well as of resident corporators.

But Mr Ticknor has taken ground here, on which, as far as our knowledge goes, he stands nearly alone, viz. that it is not only inexpedient that all the Corporation should be residents, but that *any* resident instructer should be a member of the Corporation. Now, not to appeal to the authority of a usage in the College unbroken till the year 1793, and resumed in 1800, it is enough to say, that Judge Story clearly expressed the opinion, that it was expedient that, according to the circumstances of times and men, one or more of the resident instructers should belong to the Corporation, and that the Corporation officially

stated to the Overseers, last winter, that they did not intend to shut their doors on the election of instructers into their number. The experience of all engaged in these long and weary discussions and experiments at reform fortifies the same conclusion; for no want has been so severely felt, through them all, as an union of that close and familiar acquaintance with College, which none but the resident instructers can possess, with that sense of responsibility and its consequent energy, which none can feel but those who have power.

Other reasons than those already hinted at unite with them in preventing us from following Mr Ticknor through the history of the mode in which the reports of Mr Justice Story and Mr Lowell were matured and brought forward. Mr Ticknor has, of course, related only those facts, which were within his own knowledge, seen in the light and connexion in which they present themselves to him. We could state other facts, and the same in a different light, which would give a totally different aspect to the affair. It will probably be inferred from the statement of Mr Ticknor, though we doubt not it is correct in the minutest particular (intentionally otherwise, we know it could not be), that Mr Justice Story's report having grown out of an original motion from the resident instructers, and having been matured after the conferences with the Corporation, presented the combined result of the discretion of all the College boards. So far is this from being the case, that Mr Justice Story stated in his place, last winter, that he had himself misunderstood the circumstances under which the discussions leading to his own report had originated, and that when he had expected the co-operation of the Corporation and the immediate instructers, he had found himself without the support of either body. Mr Lowell's report, drawn up with infinite labour, and most praiseworthy diligence, on the part of himself and the other gentlemen of the Committee, fell very far short of Mr Justice Story's, in its proposed changes, and was intended to give the *go-by* to it. In this situation, Mr Justice Story pursued a course worthy of his character and talent. He threw the whole weight of his irresistible powers of argument and persuasion npon the subject, and at the end of a long discussion he prevailed, and a resolution (we believe an unanimous one) passed to accept his report. But, with this verbal acceptance, the affair, so far as the Overseers exercised any authoritative power, stopped. They sent this *accepted* report, in which great and important measures were recommended, down to the Corporation, to do what?—to apply as much of it

as they should deem expedient. Nor did the Overseers stop here. They also *accepted* Mr Lowell's report; a report emanating from a Committee to which Judge Story had been referred; a report intended to embody the practical results of his, but as Mr Ticknor very truly states, coming quite short of its provisions. The Overseers, nevertheless, accepted it, and referred it to the Corporation, to adopt such parts of it as were consistent with Judge Story's! This, of course, left the whole subject precisely where it stood before either report was made. The Corporation have proceeded accordingly, and have digested, in part, a new system of laws and discipline. Mr Ticknor has selected three or four points, as the leading improvements that are introduced in this system. We cannot agree with him in their importance; they appear to us either of little utility or as yet merely on paper.

First, the opening of the College to other than regular students is either no new thing, or it is one which will never go into operation. Persons, not members of any class, might always have resided at College, used the library, and attended the lectures. Many have done it. Farther than this, we do not believe it possible or desirable that the practice should go.

The second great beneficial change is the shortening the time of vacations, by three weeks, and throwing the long vacation into the summer. We do not think it very easy to establish, that ten weeks is certainly better than thirteen; we do not regard the vacations as so much lost time; we conceive them to have their specific uses, as important in the general system, as those of term-time. There are also peculiar conveniences of having the long vacation in the winter. Still it is a balance of advantages and disadvantages; and we are disposed to think the change good; but neither so decidedly good nor so important, as to deserve prominent notice, among the features of a system so long and laboriously discussed.

The third change, that of giving instruction *by departments*, must be carried into operation, before it will be possible to say not how good it is, but what it is. Instruction always has been given in departments, as far as is provided for in the fifty-eighth new law; and whether the organization of *eleven* new boards, provided for in the sixtieth, is likely to be of practical use, we cannot say. We doubt it. Law sixty-third (one of those cited by Mr Ticknor as constituting the departments), gives to the immediate instructers one of the powers, which it is said to be highly inexpedient they should possess, that of fixing their own labours. They "are authorized to make such occasional changes

and substitutions in the ordinary course of study, as in their judgment shall be required or justified by the diversities of intellectual powers," &c.

An option between studies, also mentioned under this head, we agree with Mr Ticknor fully, would be highly beneficial. Great practical difficulties, however, will be found to attend it.

The fourth chief change mentioned, is that of a subdivision of classes into sections according to talent and proficiency. This unquestionably would be a most admirable arrangement, but it is yet *to be*. The law, as at present, applies it only to the lowest class imperatively, and to the three higher classes *as far as expedient*. The means possessed at Cambridge are wholly inadequate to carry it into effect. At West Point, where this subdivision exists, and with the happiest results, with a number of students less than at Cambridge, a body of about thirty teachers is employed in instruction. One third of these have been cadets employed as assistant teachers. This, however, is regarded as an evil at West Point, and could not be imitated here. In order to carry into operation the principle of a subdivision of classes at Cambridge, though it should not go farther than a division of each class into three sections, twenty-four teachers, each of whom should devote three hours daily to instruction, would be required. We do not say that so many ought not be employed, but we have no belief that they will be.

Mr Ticknor cites, with less emphasis, other provisions in the new laws, on some of which we agree, on some differ with him. The result of the whole is, however, as far as our knowledge goes, that little or nothing is yet done. Under the present organization, we firmly believe, that little or nothing will be done. No great and efficient extension of a system so complicated as that of the College can take place, under mere deputed authority. The excitement of mind to devise, and the energy to execute, cannot be imparted by votes of a non-resident board, requesting information and reports. We entertain the highest opinion of the gentlemen who compose the Corporation. We have the highest confidence in their principles, and the greatest respect for their talents. We only believe that they cannot do impossibilities.

1. *An Address delivered in Nashville, Tennessee, January* 12, 1825, *at the Inauguration of the President of Cumberland College.* By PHILIP LINDSLEY, D. D. President of the College. Nashville. 8vo. pp. 48.
2. *Plan of a Seminary for the Education of Instructers of Youth.* By THOMAS H. GALLAUDET, Principal of the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb. Boston. 1825. 8vo. pp. 39.
3. *Observations on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States; with Suggestions for its Accomplishment.* By WALTER R. JOHNSON, Principal of the Academy at Germantown, Pennsylvania. Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo. pp. 28.

[Concluded from page 183.]

MR JOHNSON proposes to attach to our colleges and higher seminaries of learning, professors whose peculiar and special duty it shall be to instruct those in the science of practical education, who may wish to adopt that as their permanent profession. His "Observations" throughout partake abundantly of the spirit of our times, and are, we think, well calculated to excite the public attention to the general subject of education in that section of our country where he resides, and to direct inquiries to the most important topics involved in it. And this is all that is necessary in order to produce the universal impression, that some measures must be taken, and that speedily, to elevate the character of the common schools, or, in other words, to raise the tone of that portion of the public instruction, which is equally accessible to every class in the community. The first step towards this, and it is one upon which the efficacy of all others seems more or less to depend, is to raise the character and qualifications of teachers.

"It is believed," says Mr Johnson, "that the demand for good instructers is increasing in our country, in a ratio far exceeding that of the augmentation of our population. This belief is founded upon the consideration that many of the States, which have hitherto been destitute of school systems, are now forming plans for the general or universal diffusion of knowledge: that higher institutions, as well as common schools, are in all parts of the Union becoming the objects of favour and attention, to a degree heretofore unequalled; that in seminaries of every grade[?], the number of branches expected to be taught, is much greater than formerly: that in every quarter it is beginning to be understood, that under free political

institutions, the cause of good learning is the foundation of success to all other good causes, and that as the public become enlightened on the subject, they are also becoming better qualified to distinguish the able from the imbecile, and those who act from principle from those who follow caprice or sordid interest alone. It is daily made more and more evident, even to those who reflect but little, that every man is not by nature an instructer; a truth which seems to have been overlooked by those who have been ready to employ the weak, untaught, and inexperienced for those offices in which eminent abilities, thorough instruction, and extensive experience are of the utmost importance."

After stating the perplexities both to instructers and pupils, and the evils and hindrances which result to the cause of education generally, from the want of competent and experienced teachers, Mr Johnson insists upon the necessity of some direct preparation for the successful discharge of the duties of the profession.

"To obviate in some degree these difficulties, to render his duties less irksome to the teacher, and more profitable to the pupil—to give to our institutions of learning (already the subjects of much applause) a still higher character and thereby to subserve the interests of our country and of humanity, it is proposed to afford, by the institutions in question, an opportunity, to those who are designed for teachers, of making themselves theoretically and practically acquainted with the duties which they will be called upon to discharge, before they enter upon the performance of their trusts. In order, however, to afford illustrations of the principles of education, it is indispensable that practice should be added to precept, and that too, in situations favourable to the operation of those causes which display both the powers of the mind, and the peculiarities of the several departments of science and art. The school for teachers, then, ought not to be an insulated establishment, but to be connected with some institution, where an extensive range in the sciences is taken, and where pupils of different classes are pursuing the various departments of education adapted to their respective ages. The practice of superintending, of arranging into classes, instructing, and governing, ought to form one part of the duty of the young teacher. The attending of lectures on the science of mental development, and the various collateral topics, should constitute another. An extensive course of reading and study of authors who have written with ability and practical good sense on the subject, would be necessary, in order to expand the mind, and free it from those prejudices which, on this subject, are apt to adhere even to persons who fancy themselves farthest removed from their influence."

Although Mr Johnson's experience as a faithful and successful teacher, and his reflections as a man of sound and discriminating mind, entitle his "Observations" to respect, he has fallen into some errors in his conceptions of the general subject upon which he has written; at least they appear so to us, and we shall state them, with the reasons for our dissent.

"A perfect plan for the education of teachers," he says, "would require that the institution, with which the school for teachers is proposed to be connected, should embrace a complete circle of the Sciences and Arts, and that a professor should be appointed to lecture on the mode of teaching in each separate department."

A plan so extensive and "perfect" as this, even if the wealth of the country would justify its adoption, could have but little practical utility to recommend it; certainly not for one or two centuries to come. Mr Johnson seems here to have fallen into that very common mistake to which we have alluded in another part of this article. It consists in supposing that the duty of an accomplished instructer is to teach or communicate to his pupils "a complete circle of the sciences and arts." In our view, the purpose of that part of education which can be controlled by a teacher, is not so much the acquisition of knowledge as the development of the mind. And for the attainment of this object a sufficient variety of subjects may be selected for discipline without embracing nearly "a complete circle of the sciences and arts." When the mind is properly developed, and books are properly prepared, the pupil will not need a teacher in every department of human knowledge. This consideration so much limits the number of professors necessary for a perfect institution for the preparation of teachers, as to leave it quite within the power of every state in the union to support, without inconvenience, at least one such establishment.

The following is Mr Johnson's arrangement of those departments, which he deems essential to any institution, which would undertake, in connexion with its other objects, the preparation of teachers.

"I. A course of lectures and practical illustrations on the subject of intellectual philosophy, as connected with the science of education.

II. A course on physical education and police.

III. On the mode of conveying instruction in the exact and physical sciences, and the various descriptive and mechanic arts.

IV. On the manner of teaching languages, belles-lettres, his-

tory, and, in general, all those branches commonly classed under the philological department."

We object to this arrangement upon the ground that it is not founded upon the natural division of the subject. Besides, the classing of "physical education" and "police" together seems to imply that they have a more intimate connexion than we believe exists in a correct general system. If it were proposed to prepare all children for the camp or the field, and if this preparation were to be perfected by a course of training in a military school, we should, perhaps, grant that these branches had some natural connexion, and that the sanction of authority in all cases should be physical restraint, or in the last resort, the point of the bayonet. But as a very, very large proportion of them, in our own country at least, are to become peaceable and quiet citizens, we are persuaded that *police* should come in quite a different connexion. Indeed we cannot well perceive how "police," if the term mean any thing like government, has any particular connexion with physical education. The ultimate object of early education is to prepare the subjects of it for the successful discharge of all their duties in the succeeding stages of life. And the excellence of any system will best be proved by its accomplishing this object. Now, in our relation to God, we are governed wholly by motives; and in our relation to our neighbours or society, we are also, to a great degree, governed in the same manner. In other words, in both these relations, we are the subjects of a moral government. And as we must be influenced and governed in manhood, if we are governed at all, by motives addressed to our reason and feelings, there seems to be a propriety in controlling children and youth, if possible, by the same means.

The natural division of the general subject, seems to us to be; 1. Physical education. 2. Moral education. 3. Intellectual education. And one professor in each of these departments would be amply sufficient to give a fair experiment to the plan. Indeed one for all of them, if furnished with the necessary apparatus and materials, would be able to do much, and to demonstrate practically that much more might be accomplished with more ample means. We intended, before the close of this article, to have developed these three topics, which constitute the leading departments in a system of education, somewhat at length; and to have urged on our own state legislature the importance of early attention to the subject in their official capacity; but we have already devoted so much room to it, that we must now forbear.

MISCELLANY.

THE STATE OF THE STOMACH.

Propter stomachum homo est quod est.

The craniologists have made a great parade, in these latter days, about the value and importance of their science, as affording a method of determining character by the outside of the head, and ascertaining a man's propensities, capacities, and probable fortunes in life by the bumps upon his skull. Without entering into a formal refutation of this vain and frivolous doctrine, I only remark, that there is an organ of much more importance and influence in our economy than the brain, viz. the stomach. Could Messrs Gall and Spurzheim, instead of wasting their time and talents upon the idle task of mapping out the human scalp, have spent it in the investigation of the geography of the abdomen, and taught us how, by the inspection of a man's external person, to determine the state of his stomach, they would have conferred a benefit indeed upon mankind.

This organ may be regarded as the *primum mobile* of the whole animal system, the common centre around which every thing moves. Like the boiler of a steam-engine, it makes no great display of what it is about; it is contented with quietly working away in the light of its own duty; whilst the head, heart, arms, and legs, like the piston-rod, crank, and levers of the same machine, perform all the showy parts, and get all the credit. There are some animals who are all stomach; whose lives are only one long act of digestion; who have no occupation but eating and drinking, and no sense but that of taste;—an enviable race they are, and enjoy the very quintessence of existence! But you hear of no animals all heart, all brain, or all legs and arms.

Now I maintain, that disposition, temper, passion, feeling, affection, and intellect, are all dependent upon this very organ, which fills so important a part in the body physical. Would you know a man's character, study his stomach, not his head. Go to his cook, investigate his larder, take the dimensions of his kitchen, watch him in the market, and let his skull alone; no matter whether it be empty or full, smooth or bumped; so long as the stomach is in a state of sanity and vigour, the mind will be, and no longer; their original constitutions always correspond, and every variation in the state of the former will affect that of the latter. There is an acid stomach and a bilious stomach; a hot stomach and a cold stomach; a phlegmy stomach and a windy stomach; a full stomach and an empty stomach; a fluttering, a

sinking, and a dying stomach; in short, as there is no end to stomachs in themselves, and no end either to the various states in which they may be found, so also there is no end to the variations of character dependent upon them.

All nations, all ages, all sects; fools and philosophers, poets and politicians; kings and conquerors, as well as cooks and confectioners, have acknowledged, practically at least, the truth of the doctrine which I teach. The state of the treasury is not more important than the state of the larder; the state of the stomach yields not in consequence to that of the nation. To eat together has been in all times symbolical of friendship and fellowship. It establishes a bond of sympathy between men, more sacred than the severest oath. The veriest Turk will respect the life, rights, and property of him who has eaten his bread and tasted his salt. Upon all occasions of interest and moment, when friends meet, or enemies are reconciled; when a man is married, or when he is buried, we eat and drink. Are we joyful, we eat as a signal of our joy; are we in sorrow, we eat that we may forget it. We feast in honour of the living,—we feast to the memory of the dead. All this but illustrates the paramount influence of the stomach. It is the fulcrum, upon which he must place the lever, who would move mankind. Would you flatter a great man or condescend to a little one; would you curry favour with those above you, or, for some sufficient object, seek consideration and influence among those beneath you,—make an occasion to eat with them. You may shake a man by the hand, and tell him he is a fine fellow; bow to him in all places, at all times, and in all dresses, and he will yet mistrust you; ask him to dine with you, and he knows you are in earnest.

The ancient poets tell us, that when the box of Pandora had distributed among mankind all sorts of evils, plagues, and diseases, Hope remained at the bottom, thrown in by Jupiter in a relenting moment, to enable mankind to endure a fate which would have been otherwise insupportable. The fable was incomplete; "the greatest was behind,"—the Genius of eating and drinking, a power without whom Hope were but a vain and empty shadow, came down, at the same moment, to aid her in the task of consoling and comforting mankind. How inseparably, how inalienably have they since maintained the union then begun; how faithfully have they, hand in hand, repelled the assaults of the direst foes to human happiness? Who ever hoped upon an empty stomach? Who ever despaired upon a full one? Was Misery ever painted with plenty to eat, or Content with a short allowance? Happiness and hunger are as incompatible as fire and water. Grieving and feeding, rejoicing and fasting cannot be predicated of each other. Either a man's sorrow destroys his appetite, or his appetite does

away his sorrow. In all cases it is the stomach which is the seat, cause, and origin of all. Here Grief first seizes with his paralyzing hand; here Despair hovers with his ebon wings; here too Joy first smiles, and Hope lights up her etherial torch.

No man, who has eyes to see, can have been long in the world without finding a thousand proofs of our fundamental principle. Go to a dinner party, for instance, and contemplate the funereal gloom which pervades the drawing-room; your host and hostess salute you in a state of anxious suspense; the guests drop in and look at the clock, one after another, stiff, formal, and ceremonious; and hover about rubbing their hands, and looking at the pictures if there are any,—into the fire or out at the windows, if there are not. A few words are dropped about the news; the weather of the day, the week, and the season is tortured into every possible shape. Some mercurial fellow, perhaps, who has fortified himself with a one o'clock lunch, rattles away for a few moments, as if he were among men with stomachs as comfortable as his own; he might as well talk to statues. He is chilled, after a few efforts, down to the zero of the atmosphere in which he finds himself. A dead silence succeeds to the few efforts the conversation has made to keep its head above water. A black head pops in at the side-door; every face brightens; but no—it is some whispered message of distress from Betty cook. Suspense becomes impatience, impatience agony. The folding doors recede, and the scene changes. The countenance expands, and indicates that calm serenity of expectation which pervades the stomachic region. Now is the "sober certainty of waking bliss;"—and who, after the silent period of enjoyment which follows, would recognise, in the noisy, good-natured, satisfied party at the table, the impatient, sullen, and frigid group which hovered around the drawing-room?

Many a man, as well as myself, has been in the course of his life, by some mysterious dispensation of fate, caught at a tea-party alone amidst a circle of ladies. He only who has experienced, can conceive of the horrors of this position. Every faculty is tied up, every limb paralyzed, the tongue refuses to obey its office, as if he were enclosed within the magic ring of a wizard. Awkward whispers; distant nods; giggles half forced, half smothered; looks oblique and direct, half inviting and half repelling, at the forlorn biped, as if he were some strange animal imprisoned among them, form the sum total of the attractions of this female community. But how does the vapour of the fascinating decoction, when it fills the room, warm and animate all. Wit, wisdom, and scandal go round with the tea, and as its potent influence extends, the company take up their own characters and take down their neighbours'. Even the poor masculine animal, who has strayed among them, feels the benefit of its enchantment; cold looks and frigid regards

melt before it; the chain is taken from his spirit, the spell from his tongue; he begins to feel his true dignity and importance; and he stands among them, as he is, the admiration of the sex,—*dulce decus columenque.*

Every man's spirits vary at different hours of the day. Sometimes he is buoyant and elastic; again gloomy and disconsolate. The same event which, at one moment, sinks him in despair, at another, fills him with hope; the same prospect which seems now overcast with clouds, and ready to be visited with storms, at a more propitious period is brilliant with sunshine, and tells of nothing but peace and gladness. Yet the things are the same; "'t is in ourselves that we are thus or thus," or rather, it is in our stomachs, which are our better parts. If a man tells you he has something lying heavy upon his mind, you may be sure he has something lying heavy on his stomach. If he complains of an empty purse, or a failing trade, it is next to certain that he has been disappointed of his dinner. Evil is not evil upon a full stomach; good is not good upon an empty one.

Suppose a man to wake up on a cold wintry morning, hurry on his clothes, and run out upon his business before breakfast. The cold shrinks him up like a dried apple-john; it penetrates to his very marrow. He stalks along feeling like a petrifaction. The streets, across which the long shadows of the houses stretch, are dark and gloomy. Every body looks blue, miserable, and starved. His counting-room or his shop is a mere tomb; his fire cannot be kindled. He curses Lehigh coal, and the lying demon or more lying advertisement, which seduced him into the use of it. His ink is frozen, and his pen, when in a frenzy he has wrested it from the standish, is marred and spoilt. He opens his books. His eye dwells despairingly upon bad debts, unprofitable voyages, unlucky speculations,—his mind upon embarrassment, failure, starvation. He walks home with his hands in his breeches pockets, muttering anathemas against the horrid climate, and the more horrid state of business, ruminating over his falling fortunes, and wondering what there is in this world to live for. A famished wife, and a group of hungry children await his arrival. The sight goes cold to his very heart. How are so many mouths to be filled for so many years. This is the crisis. A smoking breakfast comes in; and during its kindly operation upon the stomach, the whole system enjoys sympathetical delight. He goes out a new man; his flesh has extended and become warm, his joints supple, his spirits elastic. The world looks gay about him. The brilliancy of a winter's prospect is more than a balance for its cold. He wonders how he could ever be discontented. The bright fire greets him like a kind friend. He sits down to his business warm, comfortable, and happy, invoking blessings on Mount Carbon

and the Schuylkill Navigation Company, when he owes all to his breakfast.

We are apt to attribute to a malevolence of disposition, to ill humour and a bad temper a thousand actions which are truly owing to a depraved state of that important part, the stomach. You see some men, who always meet you with a smile, shake the extended hand, crack the ready joke, and raise the reviving laugh. These are your men of easy digestion; who eat their five meals a day, and concoct them all; whose gastric liquor is the universal menstruum, the true elixir vitæ, which breaks down before it all those heterogeneous substances, upon which, in civilized society, we are condemned to feed, and converts them into real essential vitality. But look at their opposite; the man whose face is contracted by anxiety and wrinkled by care; who seldom smiles, never laughs, and has no more conception of a joke than of a sixth sense; who greets you like an icicle, scarcely touches your proffered hand with his cold and clayey fingers, damns the weather whatever it is, the news, or the no news, the state of business and of politics. This is your man of uneasy digestion; whose stomach, like the apartments of a slovenly housewife, which are never cleared out, swept, and set in order after the departure of one set of guests, in season for the reception of another, is one continued scene of broil and fermentation, of contention between fat and lean, boiled and roast, solid and liquid, animal and vegetable. Luncheon crowds hard upon the tardy operations of breakfast, and dinner treads so close upon the heels of luncheon, that tea and supper come on before they have fairly settled the order of precedence; and the fortunate period of rest which night affords, hardly suffices for their departure, amid the torments of incubus, their duty but half performed.

Study then, not the signs of the times, but the signs of the stomach, if you would attain a thorough knowledge of the world. It is thus alone, that you can possess yourself of the key to men's characters, and learn how to approach them when you wish to obtain your ends. Some must be taken fasting, and some feasting; others during the task of digestion; others again when it has been completed. One man, before dinner, is as keen as a razor, and will shave you, close as a new bank; after it, he is a different being, and the merest tyro can beat him at a bargain. Another can only trade upon a full belly. Beef and mutton are as necessary to the transaction of his affairs as water to a steam-boiler. He who would get cannily along with his fellow sufferers of the human species must consider their digestion. If a fair lady, who I have had reason to hope regarded me with eyes of favour, becomes capricious, slights my vows, heeds not my protestations, scorns my company, or, the unkindest cut of all, cuts me in Cornhill, I

never, like other sturdy bachelors, fall to cursing the instability of the sex, the fickleness of woman, and swell the gale with sighs and the ocean with tears. I lament the state of her stomach, wish her a doctor, and wait for a change.

Peter Splenetic, one of the best friends I have in the world, is a man of the most wayward digestion possible. If I see Peter during one of your cold, easterly storms in the smiling month of May, I no more think of saluting him, than I should one of the goggle-eyed wax gentry that figure in Greenwood's Museum. He minds you no more than a post, but stares you in the face as you go by him, with such an unknowing and dyspeptic expression of countenance, as makes your stomach ache. But if you come in his way in a fine bracing atmosphere, there is not a more true, genuine, laudable gripe to be had, than he gives you by the hand. Peter is one of the best equestrians in the county of Suffolk; but set him on a horse when his stomach is down at zero, and he cuts a figure equal to the Flying Phenomena at the Circus. With one hand on the bridle, the other grasping, with all its might, his weaker region, he gallops along at full speed, like a man after a doctor or before a sheriff, greatly disturbing all peaceable men, women, and children, who may chance to cross his path. At half after three o'clock in the afternoon, he may generally be seen on the way to the Neck, South Boston Bridge, the Corporation, or some other roomy place, in all the horrors of digestion. He strides by you like an ostrich, stemming and buffetting the stream of passengers through which he has to make his way, to the great excitement of those leisurely individuals who make a conscience of occupying two-thirds of our narrow side-walks, as they drift elegantly along at the rate of a mile an hour. Such fellows have I seen eye him indignantly from the gutter, into which a contact with his sturdy person has forced them reluctantly to step, whilst he, all unconscious of the inconvenience they had sustained, kept on the even tenor of his way. An hour and a half afterwards, if you happen to be walking in his wonted track, he comes up unexpectedly behind you, takes you by the arm, wishes he could see you oftener, goes home with you, takes a cigar, chats, jokes, and laughs, to your complete conviction, that Peter digesting and Peter having digested, are two very different persons.

"Boston folks are full of notions," is a saying which time and truth have made proverbial. It is equally true, and almost as notorious, that Boston folks are addicted to dyspepsia. What a satisfactory cause is thus suggested for that character which has been cast as a reproach upon this ancient place! Notions are the legitimate offspring of indigestion. A dyspeptical man is always full of them, why not a dyspeptical community also? Churches of superb and everlasting granite, with a wooden steeple or a fence of

unplaned boards, jammed in, perhaps, as if by beetle and wedge, between stables, taverns, tippling-houses, and muddy streets; a capitol of painted brick; a market spacious, splendid, and durable, but all on one side;—these are some of the fruits of this tremendous disorder. It is its prevalence, which renders the otherwise crafty citizens of the Emporium so prone to running after strangers of distinction, foreigners with titles, mountebanks, merry-andrews, tragedians, and pickpockets; making much of swindlers and charlatans, and neglecting modest men of merit. In fine, it was an epidemic state of stomach in the community, during the prevalence of which we were left to overset the old municipal order of things, under which we had eaten and drunk, been born, married, and buried for so many years, and bring into existence the new thing called "city," like a pert, young, upstart cockney, usurping the place and honours of an older and a better.

Having proved to my own satisfaction, and no doubt to that of my readers also, the immense influence exerted by the stomach upon our characters and fortunes; it is needless, like the old sermon writers, to enter upon a dry and formal *improvement* of our discourse. It must be clear to every one how much it is the part of wisdom and discretion to keep in a state of good humour, an organ capable of doing so much hurt and so much good. Let him only recollect, that it is the main spring of a machine, which, with proper usage is to keep in motion for threescore years and ten; that he is to wind it up, and regulate it as a man does his watch, and not play with it like a boy. Let him do this, and this corporeal system, on whose face hours, months, and years become marked, will keep time till eternity. It is in vain that you seek for quiet, content, and composure in the groves of philosophy, or for happiness in the haunts of pleasure, if you neglect the state of the stomach. This will be found the fundamental principle of all true philosophy, the true secret of the "mens sana in corpore sano."

ORIGINAL POETRY.

A VISION.

I have been haunted by an awful dream—
A vision of my childhood—one that grew
From an o'erheated fancy, nursed to fear
In a dark, visionary creed. A Star,
Of a malign aspect, had been to me,
For a few weeks of dread uncertainty,
The prophet of evil; and I saw in it

The minister of judgments, such as oft
Had been denounced before me, and had grown
To an undoubting faith.

Methought that Star,
As in a vision of the night I lay,
Stood with its train directed to the Earth,
And every moment it did spread itself,
And grew a deeper crimson. Where I was
I could not tell; but I stood gazing on it
With unaverted eye, and I could watch it
Taking ten thousand fiery shapes, and changing
To every terrible hue and form, and still
Widening and widening out its burning orb,
Till a whole quarter of the heavens was red
And glowing like a furnace. Then, methought,
A form stood visible within it, vast
And indistinct, as a far mountain, seen
Through a dense vapour, when the morning strikes it,
And makes it such a thing as the mind frames,
When it goes wandering through the infinite,
And builds on dreams. I gazed upon it, charmed
And fascinated by its terrible glory,
And with it such a sense of fear,—the drops
Stood thick upon my forehead, and my heart
Was near to bursting. 'T was an agony
Of wonder and of death; for I beheld
Already come the day of doom, and Earth
Seemed parched and burnt by the intensity
Of that approaching flame. The sky above
Was like a vaulted furnace, and it quivered
And sparkled in the heat, and at the centre,
Transparent in the fierceness of its fire,
Still that illimitable form did frown
Blacker than tenfold night. His quick approach
Left me no time to scan him, but he seemed
To gather in himself all I had heard
Or dreamed of horrible. A muttering sound,
Like that of far-off winds, or smothered flame
Roaring in caves,—a sound that fell like fate
On my stunned ear, came as a warning voice,
That Earth was now within the wasting sphere
Of that consuming plague. At once a wind
Seemed to blow over me, with hot, thick breath,
Wafting such clouds of smoke and sheets of fire,
That all around me seemed one conflagration;

And even the firm foundations of the hills
Cracked and fell inwards; and one long, long peal
Gave warning, that this ponderous globe was rent
And shivered. Suddenly a burst of flame,
So clear and strong, no thought can image it,
Filled the whole visible space; and still it flashed,
And flashed, till in an instant utter darkness
Closed heavily around me, and I woke;—
I woke, and yet the horrors of that dream
Would visit me at times, even when I grew
To know its causes, and could reason of it;
And though the mind moved in its own pure light,
And stood aloof from fear, yet there were moments,
When the dark memory of this dream would quell me
Well nigh to trembling.

P.

SONNET.

TO DANIEL WEBSTER.

Immortal man! whose eloquence outstrips
Rome's, Athens', England's, ancient, modern, all;
I heard thee utter words which were keen whips
For thine opponents. Through the crowded hall
They named thee mighty in forensic war;
Unrivalled master of the stern debate;
Greater than him who kept the bands afar
Of Catiline, and saved the Roman state.
I now *retain* thee in the Muses' name;
Be thou their advocate in Learning's halls,
And for thy fee I proffer their acclaim,
And pledge their pen to write thy name on Glory's walls.
Live long, most eloquent of men! and be,
As thou hast been, the champion of the free.

J.

TIME AND BEAUTY.

Ruthless Time, who waits for no man,
But with scythe, and wings, and glass,
Lies in wait for youth and woman,
Saw one morning Beauty pass.

O'er the flowers she bounded lightly,
Smiling as a summer's day;
Time, who marked her eyes beam brightly,
Chose the fair one for his prey.

"Maid," he rudely cried, "good morrow!
Knowest thou not what rights are mine?
Beauty 't is my wont to borrow;
And I come to gather thine."

"I 'll not yield it," cried she boldly;
"Monster, do not draw so nigh."
"Come with me," he answered coldly.
"Go with thee!" said she, "not I."

Time his scythe extended o'er her,
Threatening with his withered hand;
And his hour-glass shook before her,
Pointing to the running sand.

But the maiden all intrepid,
Answered, laughing carelessly,
"I am young, and thou decrepid,
What hast thou to do with me."

Time replied, with purpose steady,
"Wrinkles I must lend thy brow."
Beauty cried, "I 'm not yet ready,"
Flying, cried, "not ready now."

Time pursued, with will unshaken;
Beauty fled with rapid feet,
Yet was soon well nigh o'ertaken,
For the old man's wings are fleet.

But the maiden, nothing fearful,
Calls on Wisdom, power divine;
Wisdom comes, with aspect cheerful,
Leads her to her ancient shrine.

There her eye all passion loses,
But with reason shines serene;
Truth its sober charms diffuses
Gently o'er her softened mien.

Thought restrains her youthful wildness;
Calmness holy hopes bestow;
On her face love joined to mildness
Blends its light with virtue's glow.

Time saw heavenly graces cluster,
Left o'erawed his will undone;
Beauty smiled in angel lustre;
Time was vanquished; Beauty won.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

The Story of a Life. By the author of "Scenes and Impressions in Egypt and Italy," "Recollections of the Peninsula," &c. New York. 1825. 12mo. pp. 424.

In this work a good deal that is striking, powerful, and energetic is attempted, but not always with success. The writer has been before the public in one or two preceding works, and the present just fulfils the expectations which might have been formed from them. He exhibits a very pleasant and agreeable, but somewhat romantic and sentimental turn of mind. Throughout the book there is a constant struggle between his genius and his ambition; the former keeping him down, while the latter is urging him to ascend; the one tempting him to a higher style and loftier flights than he is competent to, the other clipping his wings and reducing him to the only level upon which he can safely move. The result has been a tale which would have been better, had not the author tried to make it so good.

Still there is very considerable merit. The conception of the plan, which is quite peculiar, though it sometimes reminds one of Anastasius, is good; the character of the hero is well kept up, and is consistent. He is one of those persons so frequently described by novelists, who are always getting themselves into difficulty in the most unreasonable manner; who do wrong, and are consequently unhappy, and turn out badly, but do it in such a way and with such equivocal motives, as makes them not wicked, but only just not good,—and in whose misfortunes we cannot feel that unfeigned and hearty satisfaction, which renders the punishment of bad men so comfortable a subject of contemplation. He is good enough at bottom to make us sympathize with his sufferings, feel sorrow at his errors, and provoked that he should be such a fool as to go wrong when a trifle would have made him go right.

We select a few passages which will illustrate some of our remarks. It will be perceived from these extracts, that there is a sufficient quantity of affectation and of attempt at striking expressions in the style.

I was alone—alone on the dark, wild sea. I saw, by the moon's glimmer through a storm-cloud, another vessel driving before the gale—

our rigging torn—our bowsprit broken. There was a mighty wind; it forced the fastenings of the sails; they blew out in ribbons to the gale, like the torn standards of the routed and the flying. The groanings and howlings of the blast among the cordage—the loud rattling of the loose and falling blocks—the violent striking of the tiller, as it flew to and fro, no longer governed—the straining of the masts—'t was more than dreadful—'t was maddening.—No wonder that it seemed to me in that terrible hour as if the strong and rushing waves had voices—fierce, wild, and fearful voices, as of shouting, exulting pursuers.—Yes; there were spirits in that storm—in the wind, and on the wave. My fear had come—thus early come; and they were mocking. * * *

Suddenly a harp note struck on the tremulous air; the mere vibration caused a quick thrill to run through my every vein—to shake my every nerve. Again I heard the faint, low prelude of sweet promise, the tender, melancholy air, the well-remembered voice of melting melody.—I listened with mute, intense, painfully intense interest, holding my breath, which would have panted loud—my every faculty wound up. It ceased: I listened on—to nothing. I felt my heart too full—I felt it ache, sink, sicken;—my blood chilled, my brain swam round. What sound I uttered, whether faint sigh, or loud exclaim, I know not. What time elapsed I know not; but, at length, to the gentle pressure of a soft hand, that chafed my pale forehead, I opened my dull, dim eye.—Was it?—yes;—she of the sad, fair beauty—she, the once-seen, stood over me with a look of womanly compassion: no sooner did she observe me to recover, than addressing herself with some directions to those around, she left the apartment.

The following is an account of the earthquake at Lisbon.

All of a sudden I felt a slight rising in my breast as of sickness—I deemed that I had gently staggered or was giddy; but no—every sound became (on the instant) hushed or broken, like the fear-checked laugh of the menaced idiot;—another sound arose—a dull low rumbling—low, but every ear heard it, and then upheaved the solid earth, and terribly shook: and the bells rung, fearfully to hear, a people's knell; the ruin, the awfully terrific ruin, rushed, rattling close upon that wild peal;—towers and lofty palaces toppled and fell—the huge stones clanged clear and frightfully, then thundering tumbled heapingly below. Darkness arose. A ruin-cloud, thick and earthly, that might be felt. Bodies were crushed—flights stopped—fears ended—cries stifled; but I—I amid these terrors, how shall I paint me? Methought that it was me the destroying angel sought—me first, and more than all; it seemed that I was the sole cause of the dread judgment. The wailings and the cries sounded horrible in my ears;—the staring eyes, dilated wide by terror, all seemed to look on me—I had filled up the measure of men's crimes: for me, for me the world's end was sooner come;—the trumpet, the trumpet it would sound—now—now the last vial of wrath was to be poured out, and the throne set, and the books opened. My heart failed me for fear, and I rushed franticly about to find where I might shelter me. * * *

On, on I fled, till, passing with a quick, hesitating fearfulness, under the lofty central arch of the Lisbon aqueduct, I found myself alone—alone on the bank of a clear, shallow rivulet, which, in peaceful murmurs, flowed gently over its rocky bed, and glistened to the sunbeams,

and watered the roots of flowers where bees were humming over their honey-yielding treasures.

I threw myself down on the grassy bank.—I did not thank, or praise, or supplicate my God; but I seemed to ask, and find security in the sight of the water and the flowers, and a companionship in these sweet, natural sounds. Wrath was on the city; but here, even I should be spared here, *for the very bees' sake.*

An Address delivered in the Chapel of Dartmouth College, upon the Induction of the Author into the Professorship of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy, May 19, 1825. By DANIEL OLIVER, M. D. Concord. 1825. 8vo. pp. 24.

THE subject of Dr Oliver, in the address before us, is, of course, the importance of that branch of philosophy which he is now called upon to teach; but his mode of setting forth and illustrating this is very striking and original. He takes for his theme the leading idea, that mind imparts its own qualities to the material world; that our knowledge of the latter is never unmingled with that of the former; and that most of those properties, indeed, which we think belong to outer things, are in reality purely mental,—mere laws of thought,—the colours, which our own fancy throws over all the objects with which our senses are familiar. Hence, he says, the science of mind lies at the foundation of of every other science.

In prosecuting successfully a particular subject of inquiry, we are in the progress of discovery, unfolding the laws and the nature of the intellect, no less than the properties of the objects on which its powers are exercised. We are bringing to light powers of the most wonderful nature, which might otherwise have slumbered forever unnoticed and unknown. The simplest object of knowledge, which merely awakens the power of consciousness, lifts the veil from the world of intellect, and discloses to the admiring eye the foreground of that immense prospect which now begins to open before it, and which, in the progress of life and knowledge, will be continually expanding, till it displays the wide extent of our intellectual and moral nature. pp. 4, 5.

The knowledge of the mind, therefore, is to be acquired as much by looking out of it, as by looking into it. The materials of this knowledge are to be collected *ab extra.* We can know nothing of mind, but its relations to other things; and it is only by comparing it with other things that we can arrive at any knowledge of its properties. pp. 9, 10.

It is evident, that as sensitive and intellectual beings, we have no concern with any thing but our own thoughts and feelings. And in truth, what else is real to us? What reality has even the external world to us, but as it affects the sentient power within? It is true, that as the mental feelings, resulting from the impressions of external objects, are the signs of these objects, and the only means by which we become acquainted with them, we are apt to forget that all of which we are

really conscious, and that we primarily know, are these mental affections themselves. We pass unconsciously from the signs to the things signified, and entirely overlook, not only that process by which the latter become known to us, but that mysterious affection of the intellectual principle in which this knowledge itself wholly consists. We confound and identify these feelings with external realities, and the illusion can be destroyed only by the closest examination of our mental nature. One great error which has arisen from false reasoning in metaphysics, is the denial of the outward existence of matter. Another equally signal, but almost precisely opposite, is the belief of the independent existence of certain conceptions of our own minds. From the constant exertion of our faculties outwardly, we acquire a habit of referring our own conceptions to a position external to the mind, and in this way we give a delusive existence to what truly can exist nowhere but in the mind itself. pp. 12, 13.

Even the grossest objects of sense, which absorb the attention of the greater part of mankind, and are apt to be regarded as the only solid and permanent things, are nothing to us, but as they have the power of producing certain varieties in our own consciousness. What they are in themselves, we know not. It is, perhaps, impossible to prove, though it is equally impossible to doubt, that they are any thing, but as perceived by the mind. p. 15.

Our readers will perceive by the paging, that this sentiment runs nearly through the address. The rest is indeed little more than a happy amplification or illustration of it; and this gives to the whole a unity and connexion, which are rarely to be found in discourses of so general a nature, embracing topics so various and extensive, within such narrow limits.

We have remarked, that this method of recommending the study of mental philosophy is quite original with the author of the address. The leading idea in it, however, that which forms, as it were, the nucleus, around which all the others gather, or with which they are incidentally connected, is far from being new, or even uncommon. Many fine writers on the subject have pointed to it; and some of the most curious, refined, and interesting speculations that ever puzzled or enlightened the human mind, were derived from this principle entirely. Witness the scheme of impressions by Hume, and the idealism of Berkley; it makes a very great department too, in Kant's Philosophy. Perhaps we should not go much too far to say, that it is the ground-work of his whole system of metaphysics, or at least of those peculiarities of it, which are exclusively his own. Time and space, for example, with all their modes and varieties, have, according to this philosopher, no external existence, but are the mere laws or properties of the mind itself. They form the intellectual limits to our knowledge. They are, as he calls them, moulds both of sensation and reflection. We can neither perceive nor think of any thing but under these two qualifications, which always lie within,

but which we always, nevertheless, transfer to outward objects. The idea is expressed in the following extract.

"Space and time lie entirely within ourselves and in the laws of our perception, not in the external world itself; before the influence of this last upon us, they are, as it were, slumbering forms; by this influence they are called into view, and then first become objects of thought and contemplation."

But another extract from the famous German writer, gives the whole idea, of which Dr Oliver has made so much use, in the fullest and most satisfactory manner.

"The amount, which things in themselves contribute to our knowledge is quite inconsiderable and indefinite; but that which is imparted by our own internal or self activity, is very various,—embraces much of that which is generally ascribed to external objects, and may at the same time be very exactly defined."

It is on this principle, that he accounts for what he calls the important proposition, that those sciences only are certain, exact, and demonstrative, which are based entirely on the laws of the human mind; and that those which spring merely from experience, are variable, and will always be incomplete.

We do not mean to speak disparagingly of Dr Oliver by these remarks; on the contrary,—if he has wound his way through the pages of the truly great metaphysician whom we have quoted, he is the better qualified for his present undertaking; if not, he has the more claim to originality; at any rate he has very happily amplified the leading idea, and turned it, we believe, to a purpose entirely new. On the whole, we look upon his address as a favourable specimen of his qualifications for the important station in which he has just been placed. It is written with much ability; some parts might be called eloquent, and every page of it exhibits proofs of a strong mind, familiar with, and very fond of moral and metaphysical reasonings. It is true, we think it spread over rather to great an extent of surface; there is some carelessness, too, about the style, of which thinkers are very apt to be guilty. But these are trifles, compared with the real merits of the piece. Since the admirable one delivered at Harvard College, by the late Professor Frisbie, on his being introduced there into a professorship similar to that of Dr Oliver, we do not know when we have been better pleased with a public performance of this kind; and we cheerfully recommend it to our readers, as evidence, that a science is springing up among us, which every where is centuries behind the other sciences, which in this country particularly has hitherto been so little and so miserably cultivated, and which yet embraces within its scope subjects of the utmost importance,—subjects, indeed, in comparison with which all others, excepting revealed religion, are superfluous and trifling.

INTELLIGENCE.

VARIETIES OF FORM IN SHELLS OF THE SAME SPECIES.

It has been remarked, that the same fossil shells found in places at a distance from each other, always exhibit some differences in their form, the deepness of their grooves, the degree of projection of their spines, and in other marks of distinction. Mr Basterode affirms the same to be the case with living species, as he found that they do not exhibit the same characters in places separated at considerable distances from each other, or even in near localities, when the heat, humidity, and nourishment are different. Hitherto but little attention has been paid to those local differences; hence it has happened that new species have been proposed, which were only varieties of known species. This fact is of great importance in a geognostical point of view. *Edin. Phil. Journ.*

It is a fact of equal importance in its bearing upon every branch of natural history, although it has been too much neglected, and this neglect has introduced confusion and obscurity into the science.

LANGUAGE OF THE LAW IN SPAIN.

Ferdinand, *el Bruto*, as some of his subjects have surnamed him, has issued a decree requiring all legal studies and proceedings to be in the Latin language. This was done in England on the restoration of the Stuarts in the year 1660, but it was an expiring effort of barbarism there; we hope it may prove so in Spain.

VARIETIES.

Memoir of Lafayette.—Professor Ticknor's Memoir of Lafayette has been translated at Paris into French, with but few alterations by the translator, to accommodate it to the *censure*.

Klopstock's Messiah.—A translation of the six cantos of Klopstock's Messiah, *in verse*, is soon to be published in London.

American Novels.—There have lately been published in London, editions of "The Refugee;" "Valley of the Shenandoah, or Memoirs of the Graysons;" and "Stranger of the Valley," each in three volumes. We congratulate the several authors upon the flattering attentions that have been paid to their works by the London publisher and the London public. We hope the former will be richly rewarded for his enterprise; but, really, if John Bull will bear this, he must be a more enormous consumer of ink and paper than we had ever supposed him to be!

St Valentine's Day.—Two hundred thousand letters beyond the usual daily average are said to pass annually through the two-penny post-office in London on St Valentine's day.

Captain Parry's Return.—Captain Parry has arrived in Scotland in the Hecla discovery ship. The Fury was lost in August—crew on board the Hecla. No discovery of importance was made by the expedition. As this failure is attributed to the accident of losing one of the ships, the English papers urge the expediency of another attempt to discover a northwest passage. The following extract from a communication of an

officer on board the Hecla, dated October 12th, 1825, contains all the particulars we are yet in possession of, relating to the voyage:

"We sailed from the west coast of Greenland on the 4th July, 1824. In passing Davis' Straits we were beset fifty-eight days in the ice. On the 9th of September we cleared the ice, and on the 13th of the same month entered Barrow's Strait. The winter was now setting in fast; we therefore endeavoured to reach Port Bowen, in Prince Rupert's Inlet, which we effected with some difficulty on the 28th. By the 6th of October we were completely surrounded with young ice. The winter passed more agreeably than could have been expected; we had a good library on board, and managed to raise a tolerable masquerade in one of the ships every fortnight. The winter was what might be called a mild one in this part of the world, the thermometer never exceeding 48½ degrees below zero. During its continuance, we had fine sport chasing white bears, twelve of which were killed. White grouse were abundant in spring; we shot a great number of them; they were excellent, and proved a great luxury to the officers and men. The summer, which commenced on the 6th of June, with a shower of rain, was very fine; the thaw went on rapidly. On the 19th of July the ice broke up, and we bade farewell to Port Bowen, where we had passed nearly ten months. On the 23d we made North Somerset, and worked to the southward along its coast until the morning of the 1st of August, when, unfortunately, the Fury was driven on shore by the ice. Every exertion was made to save her, but our exertions proved fruitless; she was abandoned on the 19th, and her people taken on board the Hecla. Thus ended all our hopes of making the northwest passage, which seemed favourable till this accident. On the 1st September we left Rupert's Inlet for England, and made the coast of Scotland on the 10th. We have been extremely fortunate during the voyage, not having lost a man either by disease or accident."

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

The Boston Journal of Philosophy and the Arts. No. XIII.

An Elementary Treatise on Mechanics, the Doctrine of Equilibrium and Motion, as applied to Solids and Fluids. Chiefly Compiled, and Designed for the Use of the Students of the University at Cambridge, New England. By John Farrar, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. 8vo. pp. 440. Cambridge. Hilliard & Metcalf.

AGRICULTURE.

The American Orchardist. By James Thacher, M. D. Second Edition, much improved. 12mo. pp. 136. Plymouth. E. Collier.

EDUCATION.

The Student's Companion, containing a Variety of Poetry and Prose, selected from the most celebrated Authors; to which are added, Miscellaneous Matters, particularly designed to improve Youth in Reading and Parsing the English Language. By Amos I. Cook, A. M. Preceptor of Fryeburgh Academy. Second Edition. Concord, N. H. Isaac Hill.

The Four Gospels of the New Testament, in Greek, from the Text of Griesbach; with a Lexicon in English of all the Words contained in them. Designed for the Use of Schools. 8vo. pp. 310. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

Easy Lessons in Geography and History, by Question and Answer. Designed for the Use of the Younger Classes in the New England Schools. By Joseph Allen, Minister of Northborough, Mass. 18mo. pp. 44. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

Moral Monitor, consisting of Reading Lessons, Amusing and Instructive, Designed for Children in Families and Schools. By William S. Cardell. New York.

LAW.

The Speech of David Paul Brown, Esq. before the Mayor's Court, in Philadelphia, September 18th, 1825, on the subject of a Riot and Assault and Battery. Taken in Short Hand, by M. T. C. Gould, Stenographer. 8vo. Philadelphia.

A Report of the Trial of Commodore David Porter, of the Navy of the United States, before a General Court Martial, held at Washington, July, 1825. By Robert Beale. Esq. 8vo. Washington, D. C.

Reports of Cases Adjudged in the Supreme Court of the State of Pennsylvania. By Thomas Sergeant and William Rawle, Jr. 8vo. Vol. X. Philadelphia. P. H. Nicklin.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An Oration pronounced before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Dartmouth College, August 25, 1825. By Charles B. Hadduck. Published by request. 8vo. pp. 35. Concord, N. H. J. B. Moore.

POETRY.

The Conflagration, a Poem, written and published for the Benefit of the Sufferers by the recent disastrous Fires in the Province of New Brunswick. By George Manners, Esquire, British Consul in Massachusetts. 4to. pp. 18. Boston. 1825. Ingraham & Hewes.

Mina, a Dramatic Sketch; with other Poems. By Sumner Lincoln Fairfield, author of "Lays of Melpomene," &c. 12mo. pp. 120. Baltimore. Joseph Robinson.

Leisure Hours at Sea; being a few Miscellaneous Poems, by a Midshipman of the United States Navy. New York.

POLITICS.

Carta de Benigno Morales, a Felix Megia. 8vo. pp. 172. Philadelphia.

The Speeches, Addresses, and Messages, of the several Presidents of the United States, at the Openings of Congress, and at their respective Inaugurations. Also, the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, and Washington's Farewell Address to his Fellow Citizens. Embracing an Official Summary of the National Events of the first Half Century of the Union. With Engravings. 8vo. pp. 536. Philadelphia. Robert Desilver.

THEOLOGY.

The Christian's Instructer, containing a summary Explanation and Defence of the Doctrines and Duties of the Christian Religion. By

Josiah Hopkins, A. M. Pastor of the Congregational Church in New Haven, Vt. 12mo. pp. 312. Middlebury, Vt. J. W. Copeland.

Scriptural and Philosophical Arguments, to prove the Divinity of Christ, and the Necessity of his Atonement. By Samuel Drew, Author of "A Treatise on the Immortality of the Soul," &c. 8vo. Price 25 cents.

A Sermon, delivered in the Second Presbyterian Church, Pittsburg, Pa., October 16, 1825, in Aid of the Funds of the Western Missionary Society. By Elisha P. Swift, Pastor of said Church. 8vo. Pittsburg. D. & M. Maclean.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Report of the Canal Commissioners of the State of Illinois, made to the General Assembly on the 3d of January, 1825; and the Law to Incorporate a Company to open a Canal to connect the Waters of Lake Michigan with those of the Illinois River. 8vo. pp. 27.

Report made to the Mayor and Aldermen of the city of Boston, on the subject of Supplying the Inhabitants of that city with Water. By Daniel Treadwell. 8vo. pp. 32. Boston. 1825.

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

A Journal of a Tour around Hawaii, the largest of the Sandwich Islands. By a Deputation from the Mission of those Islands. 12mo. pp. 264. Boston. Crocker & Brewster.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

The Poetical Works of James Montgomery, including several Poems now first collected. With a Sketch of his Life. 4 Vols. 18mo. Boston. T. Bedlington.

A History of the Christian Church. By the Rev. William Gahen. Stereotype Edition. Philadelphia. E. Cummiskey.

History of the Reformation, in four Cantos. By Thomas Ward, Esq. Stereotype Edition. Philadelphia.

The Ancient History of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Medes and Persians, Macedonians and Grecians. By C. Rollin. From the latest London Edition, with Engravings. 4 Vols. 8vo. New York. W. Borrodaile.

Juliana Oakley; a Tale. By Mrs Sherwood, Author of "Little Henry and Bearer," &c. 18mo. pp. 90. Hartford. Oliver. D. Cooke & Co.

View of the Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion. By Soame Jenyns. Princeton, N. J.

Manual of Surgical Operations; containing the new Methods of Operating, devised by Lisfranc; followed by two Synoptic Tables of Natural and Instrumental Labours. By J. Coster, M. D. and Professor of the University of Turin. The Translation and Notes by John D. Godman, M. D. Lecturer on Anatomy and Physiology. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. III. JANUARY 1, 1826. No. 7.

REVIEWS.

An Introduction to Algebra upon the Inductive Method of Instruction. By WARREN COLBURN, Author of "First Lessons in Arithmetic," &c. Boston. 12mo. pp. 372.

IT has been remarked with great truth, that "among the demands made by the peculiar spirit of the age, none has been more constant, more extensive, or more earnest, than the demand, in this country, for an improved state of education." This demand has been repeated and enforced by the eloquence of those who know the worth of intellectual culture, and the effects have been such as were to be anticipated. Those efforts, however, which have attracted the greatest attention, have been directed, principally, to making broader the channels, and enlarging the reservoirs of learning. Other and more silent exertions have been making, to purify the fountains, and render clearer the rivulets of knowledge. While Theory has been agitating the questions, With what? and with how much, shall the mind be furnished? Practice has been making experiments upon the mind itself. The proper method of elementary teaching has come to be considered a subject not unworthy the attention of those who are able to understand it; and an impulse, in the course of improvement in this science, has already been given, which will at no distant day make itself felt through the remotest parts of the community.

The construction of books, and the methods of communicating instruction, have a peculiar importance in relation to the earlier and more elementary parts of knowledge. When a student has

laid a good foundation in the elementary principles of a subject, he can pursue that subject with profit and facility even with indifferent instruction. But children, in their first setting out in the path of knowledge, with the feeble powers which belong to their years; with no definite ideas of the importance of the undertaking; with a very uncertain relish for the pursuit, and, therefore, with a doubtful determination to overcome the difficulties of the way,—should be afforded every aid that can facilitate their progress, and every encouragement that can beguile in any degree the weariness of labour, and incite them to continued and increased exertion. Many a boy, with natural powers as good as those of his fellows, has been made a blockhead by the injudicious management of those who have undertaken to teach him. Many a boy has conceived an early dislike to a particular branch of knowledge from the unfavourable aspect in which it was first presented; from the untimely appearance of some difficulty, for which his instructer had not previously prepared him; or from the misconception of some fact or principle in the beginning, which proved a perpetual stumbling-block in his progress. A disgust has in this way been frequently contracted, which neither the enterprise of the youthful mind, nor the eloquence of subsequent instructers, has ever been able to remove; and this, too, in cases where the child has no natural incapacity for the study. Frequently those who have been thus cheated out of an invaluable portion of their life, have by some accident been disabused of the mistake, and, after the age of action has arrived, have set themselves down to the acquisition of knowledge, with which the wasted years of their boyhood might, with proper care at first, have given them a familiar and practical acquaintance.

These occurrences are by no means infrequent; and they are circumstances of which we should never lose sight in deciding upon books and instructers for children. It is not enough that the instructer is a good scholar and an industrious teacher. It is not enough that he possesses classical taste; that he has a conception and a feeling of the beauties of literature and the truths of science, and an eloquence that would recommend them to the dullest of his pupils. He must be *apt* to teach as well as willing. He must study carefully the operations of the mind in the acquisition of knowledge. He must put himself to school to his pupils. He must study the character of their individual minds, by presenting different subjects to them, and observing how they take hold of those subjects, the kind of efforts which they make to comprehend them, and the extent to which their undisciplined

faculties are able to reach. This habit of studying the peculiar characteristics of his pupils' minds, and endeavouring to temper his instructions, both in kind and degree, to their individual wants, will, we cannot say *soon*, but will in time, enable him to judge with tolerable accuracy in what they need to be assisted, and in what it is best that they should rely upon their own efforts. Too much teaching is as hurtful to the pupil as too little; nay, it is more so; it deceives him with the mere shadow of knowledge, and prevents him from making those exertions which are necessary to secure the substance.

A teacher who has thus learned the art of instruction,—an art it is, which nothing but practice and a love of the pursuit can give,—will be slow to attribute the mistakes and misapprehensions of his pupils to their want of intelligence, or of adaptation of mind to that particular study. He will, not by mere patience, but by an active and persevering interest which few subjects are capable of exciting, trace back the operations of their minds to the first beginnings of misconception; and, having ascertained the origin of their mistakes, he will then be able to make the necessary correction, and explain to them the source of their error. The correction will then be understood, and the pupils will proceed in the subject with satisfaction and facility. In this way the teacher not only directs the operations of their minds, but animates them to increased exertion, by giving them a consciousness of intellectual power, and enabling them to perceive those truths, which the inexperienced and impatient teacher would repeat an hundred times without conveying to the minds of his pupils any idea of the subject, upon which he poured himself out with so much copiousness and fluency.

We know, that by some men this didactic toil is believed to constitute the great business of teaching; they suppose that knowledge may be decanted like water, that the mind of the instructer only is to be in active operation, while that of the pupil is a passive receptacle of knowledge. While upon this topic, we beg leave to introduce the remarks of one whose opinions we are glad to find are not entirely unknown or disregarded by our scholars; and whose experience and success as a teacher entitle his opinions to the highest consideration. "Though the professor," says Dr Jardine, "explained the subject of which he treated with great perspicuity and distinctness, yet no useful or permanent effects could possibly result from his prelections, either in the way of promoting activity of mind, or of leading to sound scientific principles. The duties of the teacher consist in adapt-

ing his instructions to the capacities of his pupils; in supplying them with constant and suitable employment; and in conducting them from things more easy to things more difficult, in the natural order of the sciences."

These remarks, though true in relation to instruction generally, are peculiarly appropriate and important when applied to instruction in the mathematics. In the first place, there is perhaps no subject in which the young student is more likely to make mistakes, to misconceive the object of particular processes or particular parts of a process. There is certainly none in which misconception is so fatal to his progress, and therefore so discouraging to continued exertion; and for this reason, that its parts have a connexion and dependence which belong to no other subject. Its truths grow one out of another, and must be developed in the order of their dependence. It is therefore of the utmost consequence to the progress and comfort of the pupil, that he have an instructer who knows what are the difficulties which generally beset the way; we do not mean the inherent difficulties of the subject, these are easily known, but the peculiar difficulties in the pupils' minds. These the instructer should know, and also the suggestions in kind and degree which are proper to lead the pupil to compass the subject by the exercise of his own powers. We say in *kind* and *degree*, for it is important to the pupil that he surmount the obstacle by his own strength, that, though he is led by the instructer, he still feel, step by step, the whole ground on which he moves. An ardent and inexperienced instructer will sometimes fall into the unfortunate habit of talking about the subject of the exercise in a manner which savours of display; of running into subtleties for which the students are unprepared; of raising difficulties of his own, and solving them by processes which his pupils do not understand, and which, at that stage of their advancement, must seem to them a kind of mathematical legerdemain. He may suppose that this course will secure a suitable respect for his instruction; that it will impress his pupils with a proper sense of his power, and perhaps facilitate his escape from the real difficulties of the subject. Whatever may be the motive, the really smart boys of the class will be likely to see that much of this is mere *fudge;* while those of less discernment will set the whole subject down as a kind of *hocus pocus*, which they shall never be able to comprehend. All explanation beyond the ability of the pupils to understand, is no explanation at all, and has a tendency to discourage rather than animate exertion. Nothing, indeed, should

be passed over without explanation, and therefore nothing should be introduced for which the pupil is not prepared by his previous study and discipline. The mysteries of mathematical relations may be thoroughly comprehended by every boy of good natural understanding, provided they are presented to his mind in the order of their dependence. Or, rather, every such boy is able to develope these truths for himself, if he is only assisted judiciously in the course which leads to their development. But here is the difficulty. This judicious assistance has not been always at hand. It is not enough that the teacher have a decided taste for studies of this class, and that he be familiar with the subjects. He must also have a decided taste for the business of instruction, and instruction in these particular subjects. With these predilections and feelings he will acquire by degrees a facility in finding out and removing the difficulties which occur, and in making every thing comprehensible to his pupils.

But the instructer, with all these qualifications, has hitherto been embarrassed by the want of suitable school books. Every arrangement has served rather to perplex and hoodwink, than to aid and enlighten the understanding of the pupil. In arithmetic, this difficulty has been removed by Mr Colburn's "First Lessons in Arithmetic," and "Sequel to First Lessons in Arithmetic," two small volumes, which are doing infinite good wherever they are introduced. They are admirably fitted to prepare the student for the "Introduction to Algebra," which now lies before us, a book which will be received with rejoicing by every intelligent instructer, as the very one that has long been wanted to bring this mysterious subject from darkness into light.

By the books in general use, these subjects have been placed above the reach of a child of only common capacity. They begin with a statement of principles and rules which convey no real knowledge to his mind. These rules comprehend a class of relations with which he is totally unacquainted, besides being expressed in the technical language of the science, which language the child has yet to learn. He sits down to his task,—a task it is, for it is impossible that it should give him pleasure,—and commits to his memory, but not to his understanding, those formularies, which his instructer tells him are to lay the foundation of his mathematical knowledge. This he does, however, with great labour, lamenting the necessity of such an unprofitable employment of his time, and acquiring, most frequently, not a knowledge of the subject, but an unconquerable antipathy to its name and its associations.

After much drilling, he is able to make a kind of mechanical application of the rule to the several problems which the sagacity of the author, not his own, has placed in its train. It is quite a mistake, however, to suppose that he has made any considerable acquisition in the science of numbers. Of these relations he knows little more than at first. His adoption of the rule is purely an exercise of faith, with which his understanding has no concern; and he learns to confide in the authority of the book and the instructer, without expecting to see for himself, the reason of the process which he performs, and consequently without making any considerable effort to understand the relations upon which the rule is founded. The little, therefore, which he learns of any one part of the subject, is very easily forgotten; the different parts are not associated in his mind; the labour which he has bestowed upon one chapter or division of the subject, hardly makes his task easier in the next; he finds a sad up-hill work of it throughout his whole progress; and deserves to be considered a prodigy of faith and patience, if he fall not into absolute despair; and, what is still worse, a child, after having been dragged and driven through a book of this kind in this way, will require a longer time to obtain a competent knowledge of the subject, and a tolerable readiness in the practical calculations which are called for in the business of life, than would have been requisite, at first, to give him this knowledge. A boy who has been thus hackneyed in this mechanical process, will find it extremely difficult to renounce his habits of trust, and bring his mind to the constant work of investigation and discovery.

In the inductive method pursued by Mr Colburn both in arithmetic and algebra, the pupil begins with an examination of such simple problems as are within the compass of his mind. He investigates the relations existing between the several parts of the problem, and depending upon their particular connexion. This is repeated upon a series of problems of the same class, which gradually increase in the number and variety of their combinations. By solving these, he becomes acquainted with the particular principle, which the author designed to teach by this process. In this he has no rules, and he wants none. Every case is an examination of the particulars therein embraced. These several cases he compares, generalizes their results, and perhaps expresses the essential relations of the several parts of the problems of this class, in a general proposition, theorem, or *rule*. Not that he is to learn any thing from this rule; it is merely a convenient summary or synopsis of the knowledge

which this induction has given him. When a new principle is introduced, it is done, not by announcing it in the shape of an abstract proposition, but through the medium of a problem involving this principle. As in every stage of this progress, the new principle introduced, is that which bears the greatest analogy to the last, nothing is difficult or hard to be understood in the place in which it comes. In a process like this, the pupil learns the essence of the science; and, so far from meeting with serious difficulties and discouragements, he is agreeably entertained. He sees what he is doing, and the reason of the results which he obtains; and cannot but be gratified with the continual discovery which he is making of important and interesting truths.

In the preface to the work before us, Mr Colburn observes:

The learner is expected to derive most of his knowledge by solving the examples himself; therefore care has been taken to make the explanations as few and as brief as is consistent with giving an idea of what is required. In fact, explanations rather embarrass than aid the learner, because he is apt to trust too much to them, and neglect to employ his own powers; and because the explanation is not made in the way that would naturally suggest itself to him, if he were left to examine the subject by himself. The best mode, therefore, seems to be, to give examples so simple as to require little or no explanation, and let the learner reason for himself, taking care to make them more difficult as he proceeds. This method, besides giving the learner confidence, by making him rely on his own powers, is much more interesting to him, because he seems to himself to be constantly making new discoveries. Indeed, an apt scholar will frequently make original explanations much more simple than would have been given by the author. This mode has also the advantage of exercising the learner in reasoning, instead of making him a listener, while the author reasons before him.

In the book before us, the pupil proceeds in this way through sixty pages, and by this time will become master of all the simple algebraical operations which are required in the solution of problems in simple equations involving one or two unknown quantities. An extended generalization is now attempted; and the learner proceeds from the particulars to the general principles by such easy steps as enable him fully to comprehend them; and the rules and theorems which result from these generalizations become rather expressions of the knowledge which he has himself acquired by previous analyses, than preceptive directions for future operations.

This is the place where writers on algebra have generally commenced the subject. It requires, however, but little discrimination to discover the vast superiority of the inductive method, and that the analytical process by which the student has established these rules, will give him an astonishing facility in applying them. He now comprehends the general terms of the proposition, as they embrace a class of particulars with which he has become familiarly acquainted. This success encourages him to pursue his work; and he thus proceeds, by easy but sure steps, to a knowlege of the higher principles of the science; a knowledge entirely his own, received by an intuition of the truths themselves.

It might be thought by one unacquainted with the subject, that this method leaves nothing for an instructer to do. There are no rules to be recited; no technical definitions to be repeated from memory; nothing to be said from the book, and very little examination of results; for the pupil will generally know whether they are correct, as he surveys the whole process from beginning to end. It is true that there is little of all this to be done; but there is work which requires much more experience, watchfulness, and assiduous attention, not only to the subject in all its relations and bearings, but to the manner in which each of the pupils takes hold of the subject,—the peculiar tendencies, the powers and defects of each individual mind. The instructer is to lead his pupils along the path of discovery, point out to them the great landmarks of the science, direct their particular attention to the more important parts, and let them survey these from different points of view, and explore the various avenues which lead to them. He must follow in their analytical processes; and, in doing this, he is not to tell them how these are to be performed, but to make such suggestions and queries as will lead them to discover the shortest or the simplest method; to call for an interpretation of facts and circumstances which they may overlook; and to ask such questions as will lead them to the practical application of the principles with which they thus become acquainted. He is to watch for every indication of mistake or misapprehension; to discover if his pupils comprehend the full extent of the truths which they have learned, and if they make the nicer distinctions; and when he finds that they fail to understand, even in things which may be considered plain, he is not to manifest impatience or surprise, but set about finding out the difficulty; for there is, without doubt, a real difficulty, though it may not appear such to him. It is no proof of the pupil's want

of understanding that he has taken but a partial view of some truth previously considered, which is essential to a right understanding of this. The instructer, therefore, instead of attempting to supply by authority what he may think to be an intellectual defect, should carefully trace back the associations in the pupil's mind till he come to the source of the difficulty; for it is very probable that this mistake will prove to have been occasioned by the imperfection of technical language or his own want of care. It will be at once perceived, that these duties require the most unremitted effort. There is much, however, to repay the exertions of one fond of the subject, who takes a satisfaction in tracing the operations of the young mind in the development of its powers; and we hope that none else will ever engage in the employment.

This, however, is not the kind of instruction which boys receive, in this department of knowledge, at our schools and academies generally. They are sent to the counting-room or the college, furnished with a kind of technical *verbiage* as a substitute for a knowledge of the subject. They have learned the prescribed book or books, and at a public examination have recited with punctilious accuracy the whole apparatus of rules, theorems, and formularies; and this, they and their friends are taught to believe, is evidence of a knowledge of the subject. They go to the counting-room, where they soon find out the mistake, or are perhaps received at the college, though it would be doing them a kindness to exclude them from a situation in which the mere want of suitable preparation unfits them for that successful competition with their fellows, which they have maintained in the lower seminaries, and which their talents, under proper advantages, would enable them to maintain even in the highest.

This preparatory discipline, we observe, is not to be generally looked for in our schools as they are constituted at present. The principal, who is usually the only permanent instructer, is generally selected on account of his classical attainments or predilections. We do not say that this is wrong; we merely state the fact. Under these circumstances, he very naturally, and, as we think, very properly assumes that portion of the instruction, which he is best qualified to give. The remainder is left to his ushers, who, though sometimes very good scholars, are too inexperienced to be good instructers in any department, especially in that which of all others requires those aids which experience alone can give; and it is to be feared they too often come to the work with little or no heart for its duties, with no wish for a reputation in

such a service, but only as to a temporary expedient, to enable them to engage in a profession in which the sacrifices are fewer, and the honours and rewards are of higher consideration in the community.

These circumstances are sufficient to account for the imperfect instruction given, in many of our schools, in geography, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, and for the sad falling-off, as it is usually called, which many a promising youth suffers on being transferred to a competition in which this very want of mental discipline prevents him from maintaining that rank to which he aspires, and which, with a suitable preparation, he might easily attain. It is a fact which we cannot conceal if we would, that, in most of our academies and schools, the instruction given in these branches, is little better than none. This is the case even in schools whose reputation, in other respects, stands deservedly high. We do not say this because it gives us pleasure to find fault; but because we feel it our duty to bring the subject before the public, that the guardians of public instruction may apply the proper remedy. This remedy is plain. These subjects should, in our academies and other classical schools of sufficient means, be made a separate department, and placed under the direction of an instructer possessed of the qualifications which this kind of instruction requires. We have facts enough to show what are the advantages which would result from such an arrangement in our schools. The experiment has even been made; and those boys who have received most of this preparatory discipline, have, when transferred to our colleges, better sustained their comparative rank in their several classes; and, especially in philosophy and political science, have frequently surpassed those who were more promising at first, but whose previous discipline had been confined to Latin and Greek, leaving their preparation in geography, arithmetic, and algebra, to rest upon little more than mere *memoriter* exercises.

We had determined to make some remarks upon Mr Colburn's new doctrine of series, and its use in the binomial theorem, a method of illustration entirely original;—but this article is already too long. All that we have room to add respecting these books, is, we wish them thoroughly known by those who have charge of instruction. They do not need our praises. The Lessons in Arithmetic and the Sequel are beginning to be known by their effects; and we doubt not that this Introduction to Algebra will find its way, without our aid, into those schools over which intelligence and assiduity preside.

Memoirs of the Countess de Genlis, illustrative of the History of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries. Written by Herself. Vol. II. New York. 8vo. pp. 390.

MADAME DE GENLIS is so inattentive to dates, that it is not easy to fix exactly the period of time occupied by this second volume of her memoirs. It would appear, however, to be about eighteen years, bringing her history down to the close of the last century. This volume seemed to us, contrary to our expectations, less interesting than the former. The first part of it contains rather an entertaining account of her adventures during a tour in Italy, in company with the Duke and Duchess of Chartres, not long after she undertook the education of the children of the Duke of Chartres, afterwards celebrated as the infamous Duke of Orleans. In this employment she continued till the year 1791, when she left it in consequence of the animosity of the duchess. She afterwards resumed the care of one of the daughters, Mademoiselle D'Orleans, with whom she travelled to England in the same year. Here she remained about twelve months, and then returned to Paris, which was then agitated by the troubles of the revolution. Mademoiselle D'Orleans having been included in the list of emigrants, was compelled to leave France, and Madame de Genlis accompanied her. The remainder is occupied with an account of her residences in various parts of the continent for six or seven years.

We were disappointed to find so little notice of many remarkable persons, who figured during this interesting period of the history of France, and rather impatient of the petty details of insignificant matters and persons with which the volume is spun out. These were agreeable enough in the first volume, but we become tired of them, when we find them extending through a second closely printed octavo volume, and the more so, that we expected something different. The following extracts from her account of a visit to the convent of La Trappe, will be interesting to many of our readers.

A short time previous, we had all gone together to La Trappe. The princesses of the blood had, in right of their birth, and in quality of descendants of Saint Louis, the right of entering all the convents of men, even the most austere; but up to this time, when they had made use of this privilege, they had either all entered the convent together, or if there were none of the ladies with

them, they were accompanied by their fathers or husbands; so that until this period, no private lady had ever entered the precincts of La Trappe. I insisted upon entering, and I succeeded. I represented, that the governess was inseparable from her pupil, unless she gave her up into the hands of her mother; but that as I was alone with Mademoiselle, it would be, in effect, to refuse her, as I could not consent to be separated from her. The chapter assembled to deliberate on the question, and the result was agreeable to my wishes. I was allowed to enter with the young princess, and I was treated with the utmost politeness. First we heard the reading, which took place in the cloister, where all the fathers were seated; it was a kind of French sermon, of which I remember the following passage: "Fly far from us, all ye vain and deceitful pleasures! In this place ye are expiated or despised!" The breathless attention of these religious persons had something very striking and touching in it. After the reading was over, we entered a saloon, where we were received by the old and the actual abbé, who remained with us. In three quarters of an hour, we were led to the choir, which was very handsome. All the fathers sung with the piety of angels, and from time to time prostrated themselves on the ground, remaining there in profound silence until the sound of a hammer gave them the signal to rise; all this, added to the simple majesty of the church, affected me with an inexpressible emotion. After the service we went out, and were conducted to the bottom of a large staircase, leading to the cells; there we were told to stop, while the abbé, at the foot of the stairs, holding a branch in his hand, blessed one by one the fathers as they marched by him, each bowing profoundly; they afterwards went up stairs to retire to rest. After this ceremony we were reconducted to the saloon, where we supped, and where we remained an hour in conversation with the fathers. * * *

The day following, after mass, we went to the refectory to see the fathers dine. There was no cloth on the table, but each had a towel; their dishes were of pewter, and their spoons and forks of box-wood; to each was served a bowl of soup, a plate of vegetables, two or three raw potatoes, a large piece of good bread, a jug of water and another of beer. A reader seated on an elevated chair read to them during the repast. Afterward, the reader, who was one of the fathers, dined with the domestics; each of the fathers was reader in turn; the fathers were served by others of the fathers, who dined after them as did the reader. The brothers, who performed the menial offices of the convent dined at the same time in an adjoining hall, which was only separated from the other by an arcade without a door, which allowed a complete view of the hall of the fathers; these were served by their own brethren. * * *

I shall now mention all I gathered from the conversation of the fathers. The history of the Count de Cominges is a fable, as are also the following things: that they are occupied daily in digging their own graves; that they raise and pull down again mountains in order to keep themselves employed; that they say to each other when they meet, "We must die;" that they wear on their head an instrument covered with sharp points, &c. All these things are completely false. They keep continual fasts; they never eat fish, sugar, eggs, butter, or oil, except a little of the latter, which they are allowed for their salads. They are allowed to use vinegar, and also milk, but the latter is forbidden them during Lent; they never drink wine, but on journeys; and when absent from La Trappe, they are permitted to drink it, and to eat fish and butter; they are allowed to leave La Trappe on the affairs of the convent. Their dress, like that of the Chartreux, is white; they shave their heads and their beards, and they have a hood which they wear at pleasure. They sleep always in their clothes; they wear a woollen shirt, but no hair-cloth; all mortifications of this description are forbidden by their rules. Nobody can be admitted among them till the age of twenty; that is to say, admitted to the novitiate, which lasts a year. Only the infirm employ themselves in making little articles, such as chaplets or box-wood spoons, &c.; even in winter they work at their gardens, and afterward do the work of the house, shell peas, prepare vegetables, collect and preserve seeds, &c. This work is divided among them all. Counting the fathers and the converse brothers, there are in all about one hundred and twenty persons in the convent. Among sixty fathers, there were only eighteen priests; the others, though bound by the same irrevocable vows, neither said mass, nor counted themselves in holy orders, through a sentiment of humility; thinking themselves neither good nor virtuous enough to venture to celebrate the sacred mysteries of religion. * * *

When they have once professed, they cease to hold communication by letters with any person whatever. They receive no visits from any of their relations except their father and mother, and even this must be rarely. They are expressly forbidden to discover a shadow of preference for any one of their brethren, they being obliged to love all alike. If any one of them discovered that one of his brethren seemed to have a particular friendship for him, he was obliged, when they were all assembled, to ask permission to speak, and to accuse him of it publicly. In this case, the superiors imposed a penance on the accused, who was never to endeavour to excuse or justify himself, even if he should have been wrongfully accused. He was supposed to think that when his brother accused him he must have given room for the accusation in some way which he has forgotten; and besides, in

any case he ought to sacrifice his self-love without hesitation to the obedience he owes to the rules of La Trappe. In this case, and in every other, when a brother sees any other transgress, in whatever way it may be, he is bound to accuse him publicly, as I have stated, and the accused is always to remain silent, and submit with resignation to the penance imposed; if there escaped from his lips a single word in his own defence, all the brethren would prostrate themselves on the ground and entreat God to pardon his pride; but this is a thing which rarely happens, except in the case of novices, and those who have but recently taken the vows, and even in these instances it occurs but seldom. It was brother Prosper, a young man of twenty-eight, who had been eight years at La Trappe, who acquainted me with these things.

This brother Prosper had a charming physiognomy, and was remarkable for candour and talent. I asked him to tell me frankly, whether among his brethren he did not know some one at the bottom of his heart, who had more friendship for him than the others. "One only?" replied he, "no truly; I could more readily name a dozen than one." This was a charming answer, and proves what a tender union reigned among them. Besides he told me, that his remarks upon that dozen were not worthy of being made the ground of an accusation, because they were founded upon movements which were altogether involuntary on their parts; "For example," said he, "we know those who love us most by a number of things which are done mechanically; in our labours we ought all zealously to assist each other; if one of us is too heavily loaded, or falls, &c. we ought to fly to his aid; but in such a case there are always twelve or fifteen brethren who come faster than the rest, and it is by these accidents often repeated, that we find out those who love us best. But God does not condemn these natural inclinations, he does not disapprove of our loving best at the bottom of our hearts, those who seem to us the most virtuous, provided we do not display those feelings so as to wound others, by showing them our preferences and private attachments, which would then be heavy offences against the general charity which we are bound to bear to all, and which would tend to injure the union which ought to exist among us."

But the most interesting portions of the work are those which give the account of her residences in England; one of six weeks, in the year 1788, and the other, which we have before mentioned, in 1791–2. Here, as usual, she meets with a great deal of honour.

My journey to England was marked by many distinctions. No woman is allowed to enter the House of Commons, but that

assembly, by a special order, allowed me to be present at one of the debates. I was not allowed to introduce any other woman. Lord Inchiquin led me into the House. Tragedy was not played in the summer, yet in honour of me *Hamlet* was performed at one of the theatres. An account of all these things was inserted in the English newspapers, with the most complimentary notices of myself. There appeared also, in the journals, an infinite number of verses in my honour, among others, a fine ode by Mr Hayley, which has been printed in his works. * * The Prince of Wales, whose whole household was gone to Brighton, did me the honour to send Lord Gordon to me, whom I did not know, to invite me to an entertainment at Lord Gordon's, which he had it not in his power to give me at his own palace. I went; the entertainment was delightful, and the prince was full of attention to me. He had then a very handsome face, and the most agreeable smile I ever saw—which always gives, in my opinion, a peculiar charm to the countenance. The celebrated Mr Burke, whom I only knew by reputation, quitted his country house to come to London, in order to offer me a sight of the university of Oxford, with an invitation to pass three days at his country house, wuich was on the road. I consented. On this excursion, we first stopped at the Duchess of Portland's, which lay in our way. It was this lady who gave an asylum to Jean Jacques Rousseau, who afterward so unjustly quarrelled with her. * * *

On my return to London, I received a message from the Queen, who despatched M. Duluc, her reader, to invite me to Windsor, where she passed the summer; this was a great distinction, for she never received foreigners there. * * I had a private audience of more than two hours with the queen; there was no one present but the princesses her daughters, and her lady of honour, Lady Pembroke, who introduced me, and with whom I had been acquainted previously at the *Isle Adam*. The conversation was very animated; I found the queen equally obliging in her manner and clever in conversation: I was particularly pleased with the Princess Royal, afterward Queen of Wirtemberg. The queen had the goodness to send me a basket full of excellent pine-apples, and hearing that I was fond of botany, she informed me that she had given orders to Mr Eaton, her gardener at Kew, to allow me to collect any plants I chose to put into my herbal, and any seeds I might wish. I have never seen any botanic garden so admirable as that of Kew; all the aquatic plants are there placed in large ponds; and the saxatile plants among rocks. Besides the picturesque effect which this arrangement gives, it allows the plants to acquire all the vigour and beauty natural to them, by their position in situations which agree with them.

On this journey I made the conquest of the moss-rose. Lord Mansfield, the celebrated English judge, wrote to me to request permission to visit me. I received this venerable old man, who was full of talent and learning, with great pleasure. I do not know how he came to hear that the tenth of July was my birth-day, but he sent me a basket full of moss-roses; I had never seen any specimens of this beautiful flower, and I was delighted with these; when I left England, he gave me in a box a complete rose-tree, which I carried to Paris, and which was the first ever seen there.

The following passages will show that Americans are not alone in their complaints of the illiberality of the English nation.

I read a great many English works, and I was struck with the absurd contempt which the writers of this country affect for other nations. This want of dignity and of good breeding proves also a want of greatness of mind and of taste. With what injustice have they criticised our literature at the same time that they were stealing from or copying our writers! * * *

None of the English authors, even the sage Addison, have been just towards us. How are we represented on the English stage? The French are always treated there as weak fops, and what seems still more singular, as cowards. In short, a Frenchman is never introduced on the English stage but in order to be represented under the most odious colours, and in the most ridiculous light. In the most recent English works, we find the same injustice and the same hatred. Let us compare this with the generous good feeling of our authors, who have so highly praised the English writers, and the English nation! Let us compare English equity and French equity, English taste and French taste! This I think I may say, without any national vanity, would produce results the most advantageous for us. * * *

The comparison is thus continued.

The English allow themselves to indulge in the most indecent mockeries on the subject of the Catholic religion, and the most atrocious calumnies against the ministers of our worship, while we, scrupulous and faithful observers of the regards due to foreigners, would think, if we were so to conduct ourselves, that we were destitute of good taste and good breeding. Our nation, which passes for being so light and so frivolous, is nevertheless that which shows itself most steadily the friend of decency and modesty; our public is the only one which commands respect; the only public which thinks itself insulted when licentious pictures are presented to its view; the only public, in short, which

is severe in its amusements. So much delicacy, joined to so much gayety, form an amiable and an imposing national character.

The fashion—being in the fashion—are things to which a far higher value is affixed in London than in Paris; and the most absurd fashions, and the most dangerous, have always been invented in London. Such, for instance, are the *whiskeys*, carriages disproportionately high, with seats, which risked the lives of the drivers, if they happened to fall. What shall we say of the *jockeys*, those unfortunate children who are wrapt up in woollen clothing, and who are overheated and sweated till their flesh melts, and their bodies are reduced to the weight required. All these inventions are far from sensible, but the English, even those of the most reflecting characters, think nothing of all this; while the most frivolous and thoughtless among the French have never imagined any thing of the kind: our journals never contain the frivolous details of new fashions, and women's dresses; the best of the English newspapers contain all these trifles; and besides, on court occasions, they have the most minute description of the dress and diamonds of the queen, the princesses, and all the ladies.

The most frivolous of the arts are the best paid in England; it is only in London that dancers and singers make real fortunes. The taste for novels and ghost stories is certainly livelier in England than in France; and the luxury of the English far surpasses ours.

The English and French are generally judged as we judge individuals in society—by their exterior—which is so deceiving a criterion. Those who are gay easily pass for harebrained persons; while the taciturn gain at small expense, a reputation for wisdom.

The English are continually vaunting the merit of their nation; this is a respectable kind of vanity of which we have not enough; it is to be wished that we rendered ourselves a little more justice.

When M. Donnézan was blamed for praising himself, he said, *I do it on purpose; it is always one voice more in my favour, and the one which expresses itself best on the subject.* When all the writers of a country join in repeating the same thing, there are *many voices more in favour of their nation.*

1. *An Address delivered on the Commemoration at Fryeburg, May* 19, 1825. By CHARLES S. DAVEIS. Portland. 1825. 8vo. pp. 64.
2. *An Oration, pronounced at New Haven, before the Connecticut Alpha of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, September* 13, 1825. By JAMES GOULD. New Haven. 1825. 8vo. pp. 31.

THE pieces before us are dignified discourses, the works of elegant and accomplished scholarship, exhibiting in every sentence the marks of cultivated minds, and constituting valuable additions to the original literature of the nation.

Mr Daveis's Address was pronounced on the spot where "Lovewell's Fight," so famous in the early annals of New England, was fought, and in commemoration of that signal event. In the opening of it the orator alludes to several of the most striking incidents of the fatal combat, dwelling upon the ideas naturally suggested thereby; and then proceeds to the more laboured portions of the discourse, a series of reflections upon the fate of the aboriginal inhabitants of this country, and the political character and destinies of their civilized successors. The whole is abundantly patriotic, though by no means too much so for the occasion and the nature of the performance. If disposed to regard it with a critical eye, we should say, that with many very brilliant passages, it contained others, which, from overmuch elaboration or from some other cause, fail in distinctness, point, and directness of conception and language, sometimes amounting to obscurity. It is wanting in that vivid expression of thought, that charm of genuine oratory, which fills the reader's mind with animated and moving pictures, and inspires him with sympathetic interest in the ardour of the orator. But, notwithstanding these blemishes, it is entitled by its general merits to rank among the best occasional productions of the day.

Our readers will not desire that we should make any extracts either from this address or from Mr Gould's Oration. Indeed, we should scarcely know what part of the latter to quote as a *favourable* example of its manner, it is distinguished throughout by such uniform beauty of sentiment and diction. The style is chaste, and exquisitely finished, but entirely free from stiffness or affectation; precise and significant, yet graceful and easy; uniting simplicity with elegance; and every where stamped with the seal of pure taste. The subject discussed is the influence

of intellectual improvement upon the condition of men and of nations. Profound and general in its nature as the subject is, the observations upon it are, nevertheless, remarkable for their truth, perspicuity, and philosophical justness of conception, presenting to the mind a multitude of instructive results or conclusions, the fruit of enlarged study and a comprehensive understanding.

These orations belong to a class of writing, which is, we apprehend, peculiar in a great degree to our country. Many of the finest compositions, which our literature can boast, the most beautiful and highly-wrought in language, the most learned and profound in argument, are found among the orations written for public celebrations and anniversary festivals, and pronounced before large popular assemblies.

The fact is pregnant with important consequences. How remarkable is it, even regarded in the most limited view, as confined to the vast number of admirable religious discourses, which are continually proceeding from our pulpits,—not designed only for a few critical ears, not composed for the gratification of kings or courts, nor couched in the accents of courtly adulation,—but prepared for the weekly instruction of the whole mass of the people indiscriminately, conceived in the spirit of gospel liberty, and aimed at the vices and corruptions of mankind with all that independence of expostulation and inquiry, which the institutions of a free country encourage and sanction. These alone are powerful engines of public good in the hands of upright ministers of religion. Their operation is discernible in all the conduct, manners, and opinions of the community. We insist less, however, upon this part of the argument, because wherever the blessing of cultivated reason extends, in every clime which the circling sun beams upon in his diurnal journey, and under whatsoever diversified form of devotion the pious feelings of various nations are developed, there, in some shape, are the great universal maxims of religion communicated to the people by public instructions or ceremonies;—although nowhere else but here, under the same happy auspices of unshackled freedom of opinion united with general intelligence.

But who shall undertake to appreciate the benefit of those constantly recurring commemorations of a lay character, signalized each one of them by the delivery of a popular address, which the occasion, the place, and the speaker conspire to render deeply impressive at the time, and permanently useful afterwards? To the praise of those be it spoken, with whose feelings it harmonizes, and to that of those who lend their talents to these occasions,—

individuals among the highest in the land, nay, the very highest, have not deemed it derogating from their character and rank to come forward and confer credit and usefulness on this interesting national custom. Long may they continue to bring themselves thus immediately in contact with the people, clothing the grand truths of modern science, and the grander principles of patriotism, in all the fascinating attraction, the lofty, enduring vigour of consummate eloquence!

Many have considered it an evil, that, among us, literary men, instead of being a distinct class, entirely separated from the active members of the community, are, with few exceptions, connected with some of the liberal professions or laborious pursuits of active life. Inconveniences there may be in this state of things; but we much doubt whether sufficient to counterbalance the advantages attending it. Why regret that our scholars are mingled with the mass of the world, animated by its interests, alive to its exigencies, and receiving from the temper of the times its very form and pressure? Why wish them to be excluded from the current of events, and buried under the dust of libraries, while the tide of time is hurrying its onward course, and speeding beyond the reach of their pursuit? When the wants of the country require it, we may be assured, that literature will have a large body of devoted and exclusive followers here, as in older countries. But we rejoice, that with us, into the busy walks of life enter men of the highest scientific qualifications, who, while their talents and acquirements are from time to time displayed in purely literary exertions, yet are quite as usefully employed in their ordinary occupations, in communicating enlarged and exalted principles of action to their associates in the stirring vocations of honest and liberal industry. And as a consequence of this it is, that the American press has within a few years teemed with brilliant and powerful orations, delivered upon public anniversaries, by individuals eminent for their political stations or their general respectability, but not less eminent for the literary attainments, by which they adorned lives occupied in the industrious discharge of the public and private duties, thrown upon them by their situation in society. Hence the number of these performances, in style of composition constituting the purest and finest models in our language, and in richness of thought bespeaking minds which have tried and confirmed the results of study by the unerring criterion of experience, and refined the lessons of practical wisdom by the aid of all the written precepts of ancient and modern lore.

The imagination is prone to dwell upon the glorious scenes of the public games of Greece, where the jealousies of rival republics were hushed, or only revived to kindle an honourable ambition, and where the wise and simple, the great and the lowly, alike bent before the altars of genius, and struggled in those ardent contests for physical or intellectual superiority, the fruits of which last were destined to enlighten the world. It was here that every thing breathed of the presence of republican institutions. Skill was opposed to skill, strength to strength, genius to genius, apart from the adventitious influence of wealth or station, and simply on the broad foundation of nature's democracy. The people, in the might of their multitude, and the pride of their concentrated power, were at once the competitors for, and the arbiters of the palm of excellence. Like to the Greeks in political condition, and not less in the stimulus afforded to genius by the usages of the people, were the Italians in the early stages of modern civilization. Nursed amid the turbulence of democracy, safely confiding in its own intrinsic energies for success, and unceasingly brought before the popular eye, and invested with public demonstrations of respect, genius was there evoked and sustained by an appeal to all the most irresistible inducements, which can be addressed to human passions. Dante, Petrarca, and Boccaccio; Machiavelli, Bembo, Guidiccioni, Alamanni, and Casa,—many of the most illustrious names in Italian literature appear among the distinguished statesmen and magistrates of their time, uniting practical talents with continued literary cultivation. Add to this the occurrence of occasions like the solemn coronation of Petrarca in the Roman capitol, in the presence of congregated Italy; and we shall discern how it was that democratic institutions and refined taste acted and reacted upon each other, in imparting a temporary but splendid independence to the Italian republics, and in contributing to produce the great modern masters of literature, science, and the arts.

We love to recur to these two epochas in the history of intellect, because if a parallel for the condition of the ancient Greeks and the Italians of the middle age ever existed, or ever can exist, it is to be sought in America. The same popular impulses operate here with like efficacy and vigor. Intellectual power is put in motion by like political causes, having the like tendency to throw all high capacity into the great market of merit, the service of the people. And here the current is alike evidently setting in favour of the encouragement of spoken eloquence, as the most effective medium of intercourse between the educated and the

uneducated classes. It is not indicated merely in the abundance of the business oratory of the bar, of our legislative bodies, or of village politics. Nor is it only visible in the splendid exhibitions of talent, which impart forensic or parliamentary eminence to those gifted men, whose fame is identified with the nation's. We may discern it as clearly in the popular enthusiasm, with which elaborate occasional discourses are constantly received by the mixed and promiscuous concourse, assembled on each succeeding anniversary of public societies or of important political events. Proudly may we anticipate the probable consequences of such an enthusiasm. As illustrations of it, we have only to reflect on the influence which orations like Mr Gould's, or like Mr Verplanck's, delivered before the New York Academy, and Mr Everett's before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Massachusetts, must exert upon the literary taste of the community. Or, to select still stronger illustrations, let us consider the inspiring and elevating effect upon the people, produced by Mr Webster's Plymouth and Bunker Hill orations, or Mr Everett's Plymouth and Concord orations, spoken amid the very scenes, hallowed by the recollections most glorious to Americans, and calculated to awaken all the noble emotions which can warm an American bosom.

MISCELLANY.

PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

XIII. PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY IN ITS RELATION TO THE PUBLIC WELFARE.

The more the national industry is diversified, and the more the number of its productive employments is multiplied, the greater is the demand for the products of labour in each employment.

This increases the profits of industry; the profits of industry increase the demand for labour; this raises the wages of labour, and the labour of the country is thereby more fully drawn into action.

Each successive new employment tends to increase the profits of existing employments. This it does in two ways; first, by diminishing competition in these employments; and, secondly, by furnishing additional consumers for their products. Thus, while the new employments augment the aggregate profits of the others, they diminish the number to participate in them, and cause thereby a much greater share of profit to go to each individual attached to them.

In this country, it is obvious that industry is not so productive, as it would become by being divided into a greater number of different employments. At present, about eight tenths of our population are attached to agriculture, while five tenths would probably produce an abundant supply for both the home and foreign demand for consumption, were there any profitable employment for the other three tenths. The fact of so large a portion of our labour being unemployed, or only partially employed, leads to the question to be determined by government, whether it would not be promotive of national prosperity to encourage the production of every commodity, whatsoever it may be, which we possess as great natural advantages for producing, as the nations do from whom we now import the commodity. Any additional labour, which might be called into action by adequate encouragements to the establishment of our new branches of industry, would, besides benefiting all the present branches, produce a gain for the nation to the whole value of their labour, be it more or less.

If we possess greater advantages than other nations, would it not be better policy to endeavour to profit by them ourselves, than to give them up to foreign nations, that we may partake in the smaller advantages, which they have to offer in return?

Inequalities of condition arise among men, from the inequalities there are in their natural, physical, moral, and political advantages. The individual, however, who possesses superior advantages, let them arise from whatever cause they may, is, in conformity to the moral constitution of human nature, disposed to avail himself of them to the greatest extent he justly can. An individual, therefore, who, with a view to gain, should cast all which constituted his superior advantage into a common stock, that he might share equally with those who contributed little or nothing, would be considered as destitute of common understanding.

So with respect to nations, some possess greater natural, moral, and political advantages than others. Now if the nation which possessed all these advantages in a greater degree than any other, should, under the influence of the visionary notion, that by each nation's making its peculiar advantages common to all, all would be gainers by it, give up its own superior advantages for the sake of sharing in the inferior ones of other nations, although in so doing it might imagine itself pursuing a very liberal policy, yet it would deserve the reproach of acting with a total ignorance of its own interests.

Industry contributes to the happiness of man in two ways; first, by the gratifications which the possession, use, and consumption of its products afford him; secondly, by the useful occupations, professions, and pursuits, to which the desire to possess these

gratifications leads him. And his happiness, perhaps, depends as much upon the latter as the former; for he has generally as much pleasure in the pursuit of his object, as he has in its attainment, and sometimes he has more. Indeed, at all times, a man is more happy while employed in the pursuit of some object, than he is while unemployed, and with no object of sufficient interest to pursue.

The more productive industry may become, by the aid of accumulating capital and machinery, which public encouragement may draw to it, the greater will be the facilities to the industrious for acquiring not only a comfortable living, but also riches. The greater, too, will be the number at the same time of those, whom it will release from the necessity of manual labour, to live by occupations and professions, in which that is not required. And the greater, likewise, will be the number of those whom it will release from all necessary occupations, and leave to that leisure, which may be employed in the cultivation of science and literature, and the diffusion of useful knowledge.

In those countries where industry is seen to be associated with ignorance, poverty, and vice, it is owing to the oppressive and unequal operation of their political institutions.

But in this country where the government proceeds from the people, where it is established upon the basis of their perfect equality, and is exercised by their representatives only for their welfare, we see that industry is connected with intelligence, property, and virtue, and that it offers with these the only security, upon which the continuance of the happy organization of our government depends.

XIV. CONFLICTING INTERESTS.

The conflicting interests of industry arise only from competition, and exist but among those of the same employments. There is no competition or conflict of interests between those of different occupations; they naturally promote each other's industry. None indeed can arise from differences in soil, or climate, or industry; these differences, on the contrary, harmonize interests.

The difference even in the means by which industry is prosecuted in the northern and southern states, is equally conducive to the wealth both of the one, and of the other. The commerce and industry of the North increases with the prosperity of the South; and the industry of the South is aided and promoted in return by the capitals of the North; and the industry of the West by its intercourse with both. Connected as we are by the interchange of the products of our industry, the prosperity of one section contributes to the prosperity of the others; and the prosperity of one class, to that of all other classes.

Industry in one individual excites to industry in another, and the gain of wealth by one is employed to increase the gains of others. With the increase of wealth, expenditure is increased; and with expenditure, industry is promoted and wealth distributed.

Among ourselves, in the differences of our climate, our soil, and our employments, our interests are in unison; and the only interest which conflicts with any interest of ours, is that of foreign industry, which, being more mature, competes with ours in its early efforts, to its discouragement. And as each division of our industry extends its benefits through every other division, the interests of the whole are promoted by government's extending to each its protection against the foreign competition in the home market.

The more industry is diversified, the more customers has each class for its products. The greatest stimulus, which can be given to any one kind of industry, is to excite to other kinds. This affords to each a greater market for its products, and a greater variety of articles in return for them.

XV. AGRICULTURE, IN RELATION TO THE GENERAL INTERESTS OF SOCIETY.

To enter upon agriculture in this country, very little capital, and as little skill are required. Wild land is cheap, and whoever can handle an axe, and is inured to labour, may soon possess a farm and support a family.

The facility, with which a subsistence is thus procured, has induced the mass of our population to apply themselves to this occupation. The consequence is, that for a time, throughout the interior, where every man is a farmer, and there is none to purchase his products, all are obliged to depend for the supply of their wants upon their household means.

Agriculture, in this stage, contributes little to the augmentation of national wealth. But as population becomes denser, and other occupations and employments arise, it grows more productive, and in proportion as these multiply, so does the income of agricultural increase, and with its income its capital.

The greatest encouragement which can be given to agriculture, is that which excites to other kinds of industry. This affords to the farmer a market for his produce, and such articles in return, as increase his enjoyments.

By the increase of other kinds of industry, the farmer not only has a better market for his produce, but he finds that it increases the value of his estate. By means of it, he at once has a better living, and has become a richer man.

The establishment of new branches of industry tends to increase population, by the additional employment it affords to labour; and

wherever we see population increasing from this cause, there we see also a rapid rise in the value of all real property.

Capital in agriculture yields a less income in proportion to its amount, than capital in either of the other branches of industry. The reason of this is, that the demand for agricultural capital is greater than for capital in other employments. That the demand is greater arises from two circumstances; first, the greater security which agriculture affords to the investment of capital; the second is, the greater number of persons there are, who, unskilled to get their living in other employments, seek it in employing themselves, with what property they may have, in agriculture. Thus, as there is greater competition and less skill in the employment of capital in agriculture, than in the other branches of industry, the profits on its employment must necessarily be less in this than in the others.

In proportion as there is less skill employed in agriculture, than in the other productive branches, so must there be more labour employed to produce equal exchangeable values.

But though capital in proportion to its amount, and labour in proportion to its quantity, be less productive in agriculture than they are in other employments, yet, as the agricultural class is so much more numerous than the other classes, probably four times as numerous as all the others together, it is from this class that the greatest values towards the augmentation of the national wealth arise.

The rapid growth of the agricultural capital is owing to the operation of three causes. The first is, the large tracts of wild land which are constantly coming under cultivation by the increase of population; the second is, the constant rise in value of lands under cultivation, owing to the increase of other branches of industry; the third and last, is the addition annually made to the capital by what is saved from the annual product of agricultural industry.

Though agricultural industry becomes more productive as other kinds of industry increase, yet it will not possess its highest productive power, until the numbers of those in other occupations have so multiplied, as to create a demand for the produce of agriculture equal to the full power of its labour to supply.

H. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

The following Lines were addressed a few days since, by Dr PERCIVAL, to Mr F. ALEXANDER, a very successful Portrait Painter, now residing in this city. By his politeness we are now permitted to offer them to our readers.

PAINTING—A PERSONIFICATION.

ONE bright sunshiny autumn day
When the leaves were just beginning to fade,
I saw a gay and laughing maid
Stand by the side of a public way.

There she stood erect and tall;
Her flowery cheek had caught the dyes
Of the earliest dawn—and O! her eyes,
Not a star that shoots or flies,
But those dark eyes outshine them all.

She stood with a long and slender wand,
With a tassel of hair at its pointed tip;
And fast as the dews from a forest drip,
When a summer shower has bathed the land,
So quick a thousand colours came,
Darting along like shapes of flame,
At every turn of her gliding hand.

She gave a form to the bodiless air,
And clear as a mirrored sheet it lay;
And phantoms would come and pass away,
As her magical rod was pointed there.

First, the shape of a budding rose,
Just unfolding its tender leaf;
Then, all unbound its virgin zone,
Full in its pride and beauty blown,
It heavily hangs like a nodding sheaf,
And a cloud of perfume around it flows.

Then a mingling of vale and hill,
Hung around with a woody screen—
O! how alive its quivering green;
And there a babbling brook is seen
To turn the wheel of a moss-grown mill:
There is a clear and glassy pool,
And a boy lies idly along its brink,
And he drops a pebble to see it sink
Down in that depth, so calm and cool;

And out from behind a bowering tree
There peeps a maiden crowned with flowers;
The two are innocent paramours—
At her delicate laugh he turns to see,
And then she darts like a frighted fawn
That springs away from the turfy lawn,
And far in the tangled thicket cowers—
So she flies in her haste to hide
The blush that mantles her cheek and brow;
Then he languidly turns his eye aside
To the quiet brook's eternal flow.

There you may see a warrior horse,
All his trappings are dropped with gold—
How his eye sparkles! and O! how bold,
As he springs away in his pride and force.
There a dark and keen-eyed Moor
Hangs and pulls at his bridle rein,
But all his skill and might are vain;
He prances and tosses—and hark! away,
Bright as the flashing steeds of day,
He has broke from his keeper, and flings his mane,
Like a streaming meteor, over the plain.
Can you not see the creature neigh,
In his vapoury nostrils panting wide,
In his tossing head and his arch of pride,
And his rapid glance from side to side,
As he stands and beats the echoing ground
With quivering tramp, and sudden bound?
Then with a tremble in every limb,
And an angry snort he darts away,
And round in a circle he seems to swim,
Or bends and turns like a lamb at play.

What is that comes from a golden cloud,
Floating along in thinnest air—
Was there ever a shape so fine and fair?
And O! what wealth of sunny hair
Clings around like a glittering shroud—
See! she raises a snowy arm,
Pure as a flake, ere it leaves the sky—
She waves it around with a grace and a charm,
And putting her glossy ringlets by,
Shows to the sight a lip and eye.—
Is it a shape of light and air,
A vermeil cloud, and a midnight star,
That meet and mingle in glory there,

Or one of the winged spirits that fly
Like the prophet who rose in his fiery car?
No, 't is a being of human mould,
Changing with blush, and tear, and smile,
Such as the bard in his lonely isle,
Close to his heart would love to fold.
Back she throws her tossing curls,
Cheek, and brow, and neck are bare,
Tenderly crimson and purely fair,
Like a damask rose when it first unfurls
Its feathery bosom to light and air.
Now that world of grace is calm,
Sweeter and dearer, but not so bright,—
Like a flower when it sends the dew of night
Back from its breast in a cloud of balm.
See on her lids the gathering tear,
Clear as a star in the midnight main,
Such she might drop on her mother's bier,
Or shed for the youth who has long been dear,
When she parts and never may meet again—
O! what flashes of glory break
From that crystalline fount of love and joy;
All her smiles and glances wake,
And those opening lips such music make,
As rings from the heart of the hunter boy,
When he springs through the forest, fleet and proud,
And the startled echoes are many and loud,
Loud as the burst of a nation's joy,
In the rocks that girdle the mountain lake.

Now for the touch of a master hand—
See! how she poises and waves her wand,
As if in a dream of busy thought
She sought for visions and found them not.
Now it rises—and look—what power
Springs to life, as she lifts her rod—
Is it a hero, or visible god,
Or bard in his rapt and gifted hour?—
What a lofty and glorious brow,
Bent like a temple's towering arch,
As if that a wondering world might march
To the altar of mind, and kneel and bow;—
And then what a deep and spirited eye,
Quick as a quivering orb of fire,
Changing and shifting from love to ire,
Like the lights in a summer-evening sky;—

Then the living and breathing grace
Sent from the whole of that magic face,
The eloquent play of his lips, the smile
Sporting in sunbeams there awhile,
Then with the throb of passion pressed
Like a shivering leaf that cannot rest,—
And still as a lake when it waits a storm,
That wraps the mountain's giant form,
When they lie in the shade of his awful frown,
And his gathered brows are wrinkled down.

Such the visions that breathe and live,
The playful touch of her wand can give.

SUNRISE FROM MOUNT WASHINGTON.

The laughing hours have chased away the Night,
Plucking the stars out from her diadem;
And now the blue-eyed Morn, with modest grace,
Looks through her half-drawn curtains in the East,
Blushing in smiles, and glad as infancy.
And see! the foolish Moon, but now, so vain
Of borrowed beauty, how she yields her charms,
And, pale with envy, steals herself away!
The clouds have put their gorgeons livery on,
Attendant on the day. The mountain tops
Have lit their beacons,—and the vales below
Send up a welcoming. No song of birds,
Warbling to charm the air with melody,
Floats on the frosty breeze; yet Nature hath
The very soul of music in her looks,
The sunshine and the shade of poetry!

I stand upon thy loftiest pinnacle,
Temple of Nature! and look down with awe
On the wide world beneath me, dimly seen.
Around me crowd the giant sons of earth,
Fixed on their old foundations, unsubdued,—
Firm, as when first, Rebellion bade them rise,
Unrifted, to the Thunderer;—now they seem
A family of mountains, clustering round
Their hoary patriarch,—emulously watching
To meet the partial glances of the day.
Far in the glowing East, the flecking light,
Mellowed by distance,—with the blue sky blending,—
Questions the eye with ever-varying forms.

The sun is up;—away the shadows fling
From the broad hills, and, hurrying to the West,
Sport in the sunshine, till they die away.
The many beauteous mountain-streams leap down,
Out-welling from the clouds,—and sparkling light,
Dances along with their perennial flow.
And there is beauty in yon river's path—
The glad Connecticut. I know her well,
By the white veil she mantles o'er her charms.
At times, she loiters by a ridge of hills,
Sportfully hiding; then again, with glee,
Out rushes from her wild-wood lurking-place.
Far as the eye can bound, the ocean-waves,
And lakes and rivers, mountains, vales, and woods,
And all that holds the Faculty entranced—
Bathed in a flood of glory, float in air,
And sleep in the deep quietude of joy!
There is a fearful stillness in this place,
A Presence that forbids to break the spell,
Till the heart pours its agony in tears.
But I must drink the vision while it lasts;
For even now the curling vapours rise,
Wreathing their cloudy coronals, to grace
These towering summits—bidding me away.
But often shall my heart turn back again,
Thou glorious eminence!—and when oppressed,
And aching with the coldness of the world,
Find a sweet resting-place and home with thee!

R. D.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Babylon the Great; a Dissection and Demonstration of Men and Things in the British Capital. By the Author of "The Modern Athens." Philadelphia. 1825. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 306 and 303.

Parts of this book are very amusing, and upon some points it may be instructive to those who have not had better means of learning what kind of people and fashions one meets with in London. In its character, it is pretty well suited to the literary exigences of these days,—when there are so many among the reading public who require to be amused, while, from that measure of intellectual culture which is now common to all of almost all classes, they cannot be even amused by books which give us infor-

mation and exhibit no indications of talent. Such works are sure to be made, but very rarely by men of commanding minds, simply because they can generally work to greater advantage. This book is filled with much the same sort of writing that one finds in the essays in the New Monthly and other magazines, which are intended to be very amusing and spirited. There is some wit in it, and much that is intended to be wit and is not; more attempts at fine writing than are successful, and frequent endeavours to say sensible and weighty things in a pleasant way, which rather excite a suspicion that the author is not pre-eminently endowed with sense or sagacity. He speaks of many distinguished persons, and his principal sketches are a good deal laboured; some of them are very interesting, because they state interesting facts and anecdotes of interesting men. There is much satire in these sketches, and perhaps the talent of the author is more distinctly exhibited in this way than in any other.

The author speaks of the general characteristics of London people—of the mayor and his shows and courts, of parliament and the great men who figure therein, of Babylonian literature, including printed things of all kinds, of law and lawyers, and many other subjects, "too tedious to mention." Of the press he speaks very much at large, and there is no part of the work in which our author seems so much at home, or labours so much to our satisfaction, as that wherein he gives the detail of the admirable organization of the principal London newspapers.

History of the United States, from their first Settlement as Colonies, to the close of the War with Great Britain, in 1815. New York. 1825. 12mo. pp. 336.

At a meeting of the [New York] American Academy of Language and Belles Lettres, in October, 1820, a gold medal, and a premium of four hundred dollars were proposed for the best written history of the United States, "calculated for a class-book in academies and schools." The premium and the medal were awarded to the volume of which the title is given above. The design of the Academy is certainly a patriotic and a laudable one; that the result is equally meritorious we are not quite prepared to say. The work professes to present a history of the United States in 336 duodecimo pages. To succeed in such an attempt, would, we think, be no easy matter. The difficulty of compiling a book of this sort, in such a manner as to do justice to the subject, is increased, exactly as the number of pages is diminished. It would, we conceive, be a much easier task to compose a good history of

our country in two octavo volumes, than in one duodecimo. In the history of a country, whose form of government is monarchical, the subject has a unity and simplicity which render the attempt at abridging comparatively easy. But, in the case of a country like ours, subdivided into so many states, it is impossible to be very brief, and yet sufficiently comprehensive. In abridging with the rigor which an attempt like the one now before us renders necessary, many things of importance must be sacrificed, and many of the statements can be little better than a mere newspaper notice.

We dislike abridgments when the smallness of the volume is owing not to a simpler view of the subject, but merely to one that is more brief and cursory. We dread the introduction of any school-book which would lead the young to be satisfied with a bare outline of knowledge, on a subject, especially, so important as the history of our own country.

We cannot but think that the premiums of the Academy would have been much more judiciously employed, had they been proposed for a history of the state of New York. The matter would not then have proved too bulky for the limits of the work; and a more substantial benefit would, in our view, have been conferred on literature and on the rising generation. Every state in the union should be furnished with its own history, to put into the hands of its youth, as soon as they can understand it. The history of the United States, is a work belonging to a later stage of education, and is not consequently required so early or so urgently as to make very rigid abridging necessary.

INTELLIGENCE.

THE MILITARY FORCE OF CHINA.

The Russian traveller, M. Timbowsky, collected during his stay in China, some remarkable data relative to the present state of the military force of that empire, which, expressed in numbers, appears formidable, but is far from being so in reality. He thinks, however, that certain estimates, which make the Chinese army amount to a million of infantry, and eight hundred thousand cavalry, are much exaggerated. The regular troops are divided into four corps, according to the several nations. The first corps, sixty-seven thousand eight hundred strong, consists of Mantchous, the conquerers of the empire, to which nation the family of the reigning emperor belongs. These troops are the flower of the whole army, and enjoy extraordinary privileges. The second corps, of twenty-one thousand men, consists of Mongols. The third, of twenty-seven thousand men, is composed of Chinese, whose ancestors joined the Mantchous, and assisted them in the conquest of the empire. The fourth

corps, which is the least esteemed, though the most numerous, is also Chinese; it is stated to amount to five hundred thousand men; who are, however, dispersed in garrisons in the interior of the empire. If we add to these one hundred and twenty-five thousand Chinese militia, the whole Chinese army will make seven hundred and forty thousand men, of whom one hundred and seventy-five thousand are cavalry. There is besides a Mongol cavalry, which, with respect to its organization and the nature of its service, may be compared to the Russian troops from the Don and the Ural. Its amount is not accurately known, but is stated by some at five hundred thousand men.

All the Chinese soldiers are married; and their children, who are entered in the lists of the army from their very birth, recruit the corps to which they belong. Besides arms, a horse, a house, and a quantity of rice, each soldier of the first, second, and third corps, receives a monthly pay of three to four *lanes* (six to eight silver rubles), but must provide himself with clothing, whence there is a most laughable variety and irregularity in the uniforms. The troops of the fourth corps are furnished by the government with lands, which they must cultivate for their subsistence. There is no army so easily recruited as the Chinese. Crowds flock to the standards to find a refuge from want and misery. Notwithstanding the immense sums which the maintenance of this force costs, and which is said to amount to eighty-seven millions four hundred thousand lanes, the spirit and discipline of the troops are at a very low ebb so that the late emperor, Kia-King, issued in the year 1800, a proclamation, in which, after reminding the Mantchous of the heroic deeds done by them in former times, he reproaches them with having become more unskilled in the military art, and more feeble than the Chinese themselves, so many thousands of whom were overcome by a handful of their ancestors.

RUSSIAN LONGEVITY.

The last annual obituary of the Russian empire contains a record of the death of a man at the very advanced age of 168, near to Tollosk on the frontiers of Livonia. He had seen seven sovereigns on the throne of Russia, and remembered the death of Gustavus Adolphus. He had been a soldier in the 30 years war; at the battle of Pultowa in 1709, he was 51 years of age. At the age of 93 he married his third wife, with whom he lived 50 years: the two youngest sons of this marriage were 86 and 62 respectively in the year 1796;* the oldest of his other sons in the same year, were 95 and 93 respectively. The entire family of this patriarch comprises 138 descendants, who all lived together in the village of Pallotzka, which the Empress Catharine the Second caused to be built for them, granting them at the same time a considerable tract of land for their support. In the 163 year of his age, he was in the enjoyment of the most robust health.

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* This account is published as a fraud in the New Monthly. As this man was married at 93 which will fall in the year 1751, we could hardly in the year 1776 have sons 86 and 62 years old by the same marriage. This is either an oversight or a clumsy part of a fabrication.

ORIENTAL MANUSCRIPTS.

THE emperor of Russia has lately purchased from M. Rousseau, French Consul General and Charge d' Affaires at Tripoli, for fifteen thousand francs, a collection of two hundred Arabic, Persian, and Turkish manuscripts. Among them are some which will supply deficiencies in the most interesting periods of modern history. There is the History of the Arabs in Spain, by Ahmed Almagavi; the Bash Yainani, or History of the Conquest of Arabia Felix by the Ottomans; an Arabic translation of the History of the Jews; and a History of the Sultan Noureddin. The emperor has thus made a valuable acquisition for the Asiatic Museum of St Petersburg.

MANUFACTURES IN EGYPT.

Hitherto the manufacture of cotton has promised but little in Egypt The viceroy is the only person who interests himself in the introduction of this manufacture. The climate is a great obstacle; for, in consequence of the heat, the thread breaks, the wood of the machines splits, and the dust impedes the working of the wheels. The manufactory of woollen cloth at Bourlak is already declining. The saltpetre manufactory has been established by an Italian of the name of Basi; it annually supplies the Viceroy with 3000 cwt. of saltpetre, for which he pays 250,000 francs. The evaporation is performed in the sun, in 48 basins. It costs the government only 15 piastres per quintal, whereas the old method of evaporation, by means of fire, cost 30 piastres. A colony of Syrians has been settled at Zabazik, to cultivate silk; a million of mulberry trees has been planted, but the quantity of silk produced is not considerable.

VARIETIES.

Percival's Phi Beta Kappa Poem.—We are happy to learn, that this Poem, consisting of more than a thousand lines, has been put to press by Messrs Richardson & Lord, and that it will be published in a few days.

Lafayette.—The Itinerary of General Lafayette's Travels in America, in four volumes, is publishing in Paris, where three of the volumes have run through several editions. It is probable that M. Levasseur will publish, under the revision of the General, an extensive History of the Year's Residence of the Guest in the United States, with official documents.

Sunday Journals.—More than fifty thousand newspapers,—a very large number of which are purchased and read by the labouring classes,—are distributed every Sunday morning over a circle of forty miles diameter, of which London forms the centre.

The Pilot, a Tale of the Sea.—Mr Cooper's novel of this name has been brought out at the Adelphi theatre in the form of a nautical melo-dramatic burletta, of the same title. The Morning Herald says, the melo-dramatist has taken pretty considerably large liberties with the characters of the novelist; and has contrived to exalt old England and its navy at the expense of Brother *Jonathan* most uneeremoniously. He has made all the Americans sneaking paltroons, with the phraseology of "Mr Jonathan W. Doubikins," whilst the meanest Englishman in the piece is a thundering Yankee-despising hero; overflowing at every

turn with gasconades about his own immaculate honour, and the unquestionable invincibility of the British navy.

The Last of the Mohicans, a Tale of 1757.—We announced this work, by Mr Cooper, as in press, some months since; it is, we learn, to appear in a few days. We see no good reason for changing the orthography of the substantial old Indian name, "Mohegan."

William Cobbett.—The following description of the efforts of this sturdy, and somewhat crazy *radical*, is from "Babylon the Great," which we have noticed in another part of our work: "Cobbett was not like a trained warrior of any sort, either with artificial or with natural weapons; he resembled a peasant of uncommon strength, half out of his temper and half out of his wits, armed with a gigantic flail, with which he so laid about him in all directions, that nobody cared for coming within the wind of it. Even when he was most vigorous at this exercise, he himself used to suffer as much by it, as any thing upon which he was threshing; for the flail was swung with so much clumsiness and vehemence, that it was continually coming rap upon his own head, with such substantial bangs, that if the head itself had not happened to be cudgel-proof, it would certainly have been fractured."

The New Monthly and its Editor—"Campbell is, perhaps, the only man now living in England, to whom the very summit of Parnassus has ever been unfolded; in his former writings, there is a loftiness of sentiment and a purity of heart, a glow of tenderness, and a glory of colouring, that seldom indeed have been equalled; and if the endurance of his powers had been in any way commensurate to their value, Campbell would have been the poetic boast of his age, as well for the number as for the value of his productions.

"And Campbell is 'Editor of the New Monthly Magazine!'—a combination, which, in the ears of those not wise, soundeth well; but which in reality is about as incongruous as though Apollo himself had been articled to a tallow-chandler, and bound by his indenture to leave off his own shining, in order to further the sale of farthing rush-lights."

Babylon the Great.

The Mail.—The whole number of free letters despatched from the post-office at Washington, during the week ending on the 13th of December, was thirty-three thousand eight hundred and twelve!

New Method of Colouring Engravings.—M. Antonie Rothmüller, the keeper of the Prince of Esterhazy's Gallery of Pictures at Vienna, has invented a new method of colouring in oil engravings and lithographic prints, to which he has given the name of *Elæochalcography* The result of his invention is to give to prints the appearance of having been executed by a painter with the greatest care.

Quarterly List of New Publications.—There have been published in the six last numbers of this Gazette, the titles of two hundred and thirty-three volumes, which have issued from the American press in three months. Of this number, one hundred and thirty-seven are original, and ninety-six have been reprinted from foreign editions of the same works. The periodical publications have increased to such an extent that we have not during this quarter, and shall not for the future, attempt to announce each number of each work as it appears, but shall give notices of new ones, and occasionally a full catalogue of the old ones, as we have time to prepare, and room to insert them.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

The Report of the Second Annual Exhibition of the Franklin Institute of the State of Pennsylvania for the Promotion of the Mechanic Arts. 8vo. Price 25 cents. Philadelphia.

EDUCATION.

A Classical French Reader, selected from the best writers of that language, in Prose and Poetry; preceded by an Introduction, designed to facilitate the Study of the Rudiments of the French, and attended with Notes and Explanations of Idioms, etc. throughout the work. Compiled for the use of the Round Hill School. By N. M. Hentz. Part I. containing Pieces in Prose; Part II. Pieces in Poetry. 12mo. pp. 264. Boston. Richardson & Lord.

The compiler of this volume is a gentleman of good taste, and an accomplished French scholar; and his experience as a teacher of the French language has enabled him to offer the public a series of reading lessons, which must prove highly acceptable to all engaged in teaching or learning the same language.

The Literary and Scientific Class-Book, embracing the Leading Facts and Principles of Science. Illustrated by Engravings, with many difficult Words explained at the Heads of the Lessons, and Questions annexed for Examination; designed as Exercises for the Reading and Study of the higher Classes in common Schools. Selected from the Rev. John Platt's Literary and Scientific Class Book, and from various other sources, and adapted to the Wants and Condition of Youth in the United States. By Levi W. Leonard. Stereotyped by T. H. Carter & Co. Boston. 12mo. pp. 318. Keene, N. H. John Prentiss.

This book contains a fund of knowledge, particularly in the natural and physical sciences, which we have never seen condensed within so small a compass. The selections have been made with great discrimination, and from the best authorities; the original lessons are written in a terse style; and the materials thus made up are compiled and arranged with good taste and sound judgment. We are inclined to think, however, that parts of the work will be found above the comprehension of all except the very highest class of scholars in the schools, and even for them it will be found more useful as a text book to be studied and recited from, than as mere reading lessons.

The New Testament of our Lord and Saviour, &c., from which is selected an extensive Vocabulary, comprising the Proper Names, and all other important Words that occur therein, &c. To which is prefixed, Walker's Explanatory Key, governing the Vocabulary. Embellished with Engravings of Sacred Characters. By Jeremiah Goodrich. Price 50 cents. Albany. S. Shaw.

C. Crispi Sallustii Opera, omissis Fragmentis, omnia; ad optimorum exemplarium fidem recensita. Animadversionibus illustravit P. Wilson, LL. D. Litt. Græc. et Lat. etc. in Collegio Columbiano Neo-Eboracensi nuper Professor. Editio Quarta. Recensuit notasque suas adspersit Carolus Anthon, in eodem Collegio Litt. Græc. et Lat. Prof. Adj. 8vo. pp. 234. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

GEOGRAPHY.

Elements of Geography, exhibited Historically, from the Creation to the End of the World; on a New Plan, adapted to Children in Schools and private Families. Illustrated by four Plates. By Jedidiah Morse, D. D. The Sixth Edition, revised and corrected. 18mo. pp. 162. New Haven. H. Howe.

HISTORY.

A Historical Sketch of the Formation of the Confederacy, particularly with Reference to the Provincial Limits and the Jurisdiction of the General Government over Indian Tribes and the Public Territory. By Joseph Blunt. 8vo pp. 116. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

We have hastily turned over the leaves of this volume, and perceive that it evinces thorough research, and is drawn up with great ability. We shall improve some future opportunity to do justice to its merits.

LAW.

Reports of Cases Argued and Ruled at Nisi Prius, in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, from Hilary Term, 46 George III. 1806, to Trinity Term, 47 George III. 1807, both inclusive. By Isaac Espinasse, of Gray's Inn, Esquire, Barrister at Law. Vol. VI. 8vo. New York. E. B. Gould.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Importance of Spiritual Knowledge: a Sermon, delivered before the Society for Propagating the Gospel among the Indians and Others in North America, in the First Church, Boston, November 3, 1825. By John Codman, D. D Pastor of the Second Church in Dorchester. With the Report of the Select Committee. 8vo. pp. 44. Cambridge. Hilliard & Metcalf.

The Worcester Magazine and Historical Journal. Designed to contain Articles Original and Selected. Nos. II. III. and IV. Worcester. 1825.

An Oration, delivered at Providence, September 6, 1825, before the United Brothers Society of Brown University. By Horace Mann. 8vo. pp. 30. Providence. Barnum Field & Co.

Le Souvenir, a Picturesque Pocket Diary, for 1826. Embellished with numerous Elegant Engravings. Philadelphia. A. R. Poole.

The Atlantic Souvenir; a Christmas and New Year's Offering. 1826. 18mo. pp. 353. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

A Letter to Robert Owen, of New Lanark, Author of two Discourses on a New System of Society. By A Son of the Mist. Philadelphia.

The Tour of General Lafayette, through the United States, from his Departure from France until his Departure from America, in 1825. With a Sketch of his Life. Dedicated to the Patriot Bolivar. By Gilbert J. Hunt, Author of the History of the Late War. Written in the Scriptural Style. New York.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

Observations on Electricity, Looming, and Sounds; together with a Theory of Thunder Showers, and of West and Northwest Winds. To

which are added, a Letter from the Hon. Thomas Jefferson, and Remarks by the Hon. Samuel L. Mitchill. By George F. Hopkins. 1825. 8vo. pp. 40. New York. Hopkins & Morris.

NOVELS.

The Rebels; or Boston before the Revolution. By the Author of "Hobomok." 12mo. pp. 304. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

The Hearts of Steel; an Irish Historical Tale of the last Century. By the Author of O'Halloran. 12mo. Philadelphia. A. R. Poole.

POETRY.

The Passage of the Sea; a Scripture Poem. By S. L. Fairfield. New York.

THEOLOGY.

Prayers for the Use of Families. With Forms for Particular Occasions, and for Individuals. 18mo. pp. 108. Cambridge. Hilliard & Metcalf.

An Address, delivered at the Laying of the Corner Stone of the Second Congregational Church, New York, November 24, 1825. By the Rev. William Ware. 8vo. New York. B. Bates.

Religious Scenes, being a Sequel to "Sermons for Children." By Samuel Nott, Jr. 18mo. pp. 162. Boston. Crocker & Brewster and others.

A Discourse, delivered in Trinity Church, New York, on Thursday, November 24, 1825, (the day of General Thanksgiving throughout the State.) By the Rev. John Frederick Schroeder, A. M. an Assistant Minister of Trinity Church. 8vo. pp. 28. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

The United States of America, compared with some European Countries, particularly England; in a Discourse, delivered in New York. By John Henry Hobart, D. D. 8vo. New York.

TOPOGRAPHY.

A New Map, comprising the States of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, with the greater part of Michigan Territory, with the Counties in each distinctly defined and coloured. Royal sheet. Price in morocco for the Pocket, 75 cents. Philadelphia. A. Finley.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

Hints to Parents. In two Parts. Part I. On the Cultivation of Children. Part II. Exercises for Exciting the Attention and Strengthening the Thinking Powers of Children. In the Spirit of Pestalozzi's Method. From the Third London Edition. 1825. 18mo. pp. 72. Salem. Whipple & Lawrence.

The promising title of this pamphlet attracted our attention, and we have read it through with a good deal of interest. Though it is wanting in distinctness of method, and is somewhat too general in its precepts for the use of a large proportion of parents; it nevertheless contains many very valuable suggestions upon the subjects, which it professes to treat. It urges strongly upon parents, particularly upon mothers, the duty of superintending the domestic education of their own children, and gives much excellent advice concerning their earliest intellectual exercises.

Theodore, or the Peruvians; a Tale, translated from the French of Le Brun. 18mo. New York. George Champley.

Cornelii Schrevelii Lexicon Manuale Græco-Latinum et Latino-Græcum: studio atque opera Joseph Hill, Joannis Entick, Gulielmi Bowyer, nec non Jacobi Smith, S. T. P. adactum. Insuper quoque ad calcem adjectæ sunt Sententiæ Græco-Latinæ, quibus omnia Græcæ Linguæ primitiva comprehenduntur: item Tractatus duo, alter de Resolutione Verborum, de Articulis alter; uterque perutilis et æque desideratus. Hanc Editionem xxii. curavit et auctiorem fecit Petrus Steele, A. M. Editio hæc Americana, cum nitida illa (xxii.) Edinensi nuperrima, accurate comparata et emendata. 8vo. New York. Collins & Hannay.

P. Virgilii Maronis opera. Interpretatione et Notis illustravit Carolus Ruæus, Soc. Jesu. jussu Christianissimi Regis, ad usum Serenissimi Delphini. Editio nona in America Stereotypis impressa; cum novissimi Parisiensi diligenter collata, cæterisque hactenus editis longe emendatior. Huic Editioni acessit Clavis Virgiliana. 8vo. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

Matilda; a Tale of the Day. 12mo. Philadelphia. E. Littell.

Edinburgh Review and Critical Journal. No. LXXXIV. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

The Elements of Medical Chemistry; embracing only those branches of Chemical Science which are calculated to illustrate and explain the different Agents of Medicine, and to furnish a Chemical Grammar to the Author's Pharmacologia. By John Ayrton Paris, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 471. New York. Collins & Hannay.

Novels, Tales, and Romances. By the Author of Waverly. Vol. XVIII. Containing Tales of the Crusaders. 8vo Boston. S. H. Parker.

Miss Edgeworth's Works. Vol. VIII. Containing Harrington and Ormond. 8vo. Boston. S. H. Parker.

A Treatise on Christian Doctrine, compiled from the Holy Scriptures alone. By John Milton. Translated from the Original, by Charles A. Sumner, A. M. Librarian to His Majesty. From the London Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. and others.

Memoirs of the Life of the Right Hon. Richard Brinsley Sheridan. By Thomas Moore. 8vo. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

The Cabinet Maker's Guide; or Rules and Instructions in the Art of Varnishing, Dying, Staining, Japaning, Polishing, Lackering, and Beautifying Wood, Ivory, Tortoise Shell, and Metal, &c. From a late English Edition. Price 50 cents.

The Subaltern; or Sketches of the Peninsular War, during the Campaigns of 1813 and 1814. 12mo. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

An Essay on the Nature and Immutability of Truth, in Opposition to Sophistry and Scepticism. By James Beattie. 8vo. pp. 320. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

The Poetical Works of James Hogg. 2 Vols. 18mo. New York. D. Mallory.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

Vol. III. JANAUARY 15, 1826. No. 8.

REVIEWS.

Considérations sur les Lacunes de l' Education Secondaire en France. Par A. Ch. Renouard. Paris. 1824. 8vo. pp. 124.

This work is a dissertation, which was read before the "Society of Christian Morals," at Paris, in September, 1824; and for which a prize of three hundred dollars was awarded to the author. Honourable mention was made of two out of five other performances entered for the same prize. One of them was by M. Depping, author of several valuable works, and honoured in 1822 with a prize by the "Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres;" the other by M. Querret, late tutor at Saint Malo. His performance was entitled "Education for the Labouring Classes."

The object of this prize, and of these dissertations, will be best stated, by quoting the question as originally proposed; it was thus:

Is there not in our system of public instruction, between the primary schools and colleges, a chasm which it would be useful to supply by establishments of a special nature? What would be the advantage of such establishments, and what organization and plan of studies ought to be adopted therein?

The class of seminaries, to which this question and this treatise relate, are of modern and very recent origin; they teach the most useful and practical knowledge by the most natural and obvious means; they adapt the discipline of boyhood to the

business of manhood. Among other useful maxims, which we remember to have learned from our spelling-book, was this: "Agesilaus being asked what he thought most proper for boys to learn, replied, 'that which they will have to do when they come to be men.'" In tracing the history of modern education, one would scarcely believe that this remark, sufficiently obvious in itself, had been handed down among the *memorabilia* of a great man, who flourished two thousand years ago. He should rather think it a discovery of modern times, as much as steam-boats or spinning-jennies. This neglect and apparent ignorance of truths the most familiar, illustrate an important principle in the philosophy of mind, and one to which teachers of youth ought to be extremely attentive. The principle we conceive to be this; ideas may be repeated so often, that the mind will become as insensible to them as if they had never been conveyed to it at all; or, to imitate the language of the older metaphysicians, they may get a pathway worn so smooth in the brain, that they finally pass without the sentient substance perceiving it; and then, as it regards the sum of our knowledge, it is just the same as if those ideas had not entered the mind at all. A similar phenomenon takes place every day with respect to hearing; a house clock or a town clock may strike without our observing it, although we are in the same room with the one, or in the neighbourhood of the other; even the noontide bell often rings in unheeding ears; and that sound, so welcome to the labourer and the artisan, has no charm,—no existence to minds absorbed in business, study, or meditation. It is a common observation, that the natives, who dwell near or among the most interesting remains of ancient grandeur, and tread every day the fields of ancient glory, are almost wholly insensible to the precious associations of their soil, and, but for this same effect of frequent repetition, would be plunged into inextricable amazement, to see strangers arrive, and pay money to visit desert plains and shapeless ruins. How different the sensations of a well educated stranger. Accompany the renowned and amiable orator of Rome in one of his Athenian hours, devoted to the illustrious dead, and tread with him

> ..... the sacred walks
> Where at each step imagination burns.

"We agreed," says he, "that we would take our afternoon's walk in the Academy, as at that time of the day it was a place where there was no resort of company. Accordingly, at the

hour appointed, we went to Piso's. We passed the time in conversing on different matters, during our short walk from the double gate, till we came to the Academy, that justly celebrated spot, which, as we wished, we found a perfect solitude. I know not, said Piso, whether it be a natural feeling or an illusion of the imagination founded on habit, that we are more powerfully affected by the sight of those places which have been frequented by illustrious men, than when we either listen to the recital or read the detail of their great actions. At this moment I feel strongly that emotion which I speak of. I see before me the perfect form of Plato, who was wont to dispute in this very place; these gardens not only recal him to my memory, but present his very person to my senses. I fancy to myself that here stood Speusippus; there Xenocrates, and here on this bench, sat his disciple Polemo. 'Quâcunque ingredimur in aliquam historiam vestigium ponimus.'"

The establishment of this new class of public seminaries, from the mention of which we have somewhat digressed, is undoubtedly one of the most valuable improvements in this age of improvement. We have already taken occasion to refer to, or to describe several schools of this kind. They differ from common and primary schools by adding something that is scientific to the elementary arts of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and they differ from colleges by teaching what is strictly practical and universally useful, instead of that which is partially useful, obsolete, or merely ornamental; they teach the modern, instead of the dead languages, drawing instead of Latin verses, and Tull's Horse-hoeing Husbandry instead of Aristotle's Logic. That the knowledge of the dead languages will always be respectable, and, to a certain extent, useful among men, we have no doubt; but that they will continue to occupy the undue space which they have hitherto held in our systems of general education, we do very much doubt.

The strong, and, in our opinion, decisive argument in favour of this new class of seminaries, is derived from the utility and the obligation of giving to every youth an education suited to his situation; and the necessity of completing the system of public instruction, so that it may rise by proper gradations, like a well proportioned pyramid; and not present the monstruosity of the base and the apex without the body of the building, or an apex alone without either base or body. Fortunately the utility of schools affording this kind of instruction, is no longer a question with the citizens of Boston and many other places in the United

States; and we trust that the day is not far distant when it will cease to be a question any where. In fact, long before the establishment of the High School in Boston, or of the Lyceum at Gardiner, or of any similar institution in this country or any country; the old academies of New England, and some other parts of the United States, supplied in a good degree that kind of instruction, which we are now endeavouring to afford more fully and perfectly by new and more complete establishments. This was done, and is still done in what is called the English department of our academies, over which the *assistant preceptor*, always a gentleman of liberal education, immediately presides. We believe that these institutions may claim the honour of having been the first to dispense this very useful and cheap kind of secondary instruction. Good mechanics, correct merchants, and intelligent farmers were educated in the English department of our academies before Pestalozzi or Fellenberg undertook their useful labours in behalf of the middling classes. We do not, however, consider the chasm between primary and collegiate education even in this country as any more than beginning to be supplied. In Europe the deficiency is still greater than it is with us. France, notwithstanding the extension and the impulse given to her public instruction by the genius and power of Napoleon, forms no exception to this remark. By the abolition of the Polytechnic School and its subordinate establishments, and by restoring to the Jesuits, the old enemies of France and of men, the exclusive control of schools and colleges, she has retrograded in her former rapid career of rational and philosophical education. On the former of these events, M. Renouard speaks as follows:

> It [the Polytechnic, and connected with it the Normal Schools] had attained in a few years the highest prosperity, and promised to education, to philosophy, to letters, to history, and to the sciences great labours and a rapid progress. This school has ceased to exist; neither its past services, nor its necessity in the system, nor the high hopes which it gave for time to come could obtain mercy for it. But it will rise again, sooner or later, whatsoever principles of public education prevail; because necessary institutions, though accidentally paralyzed, will not perish forever.

Mr Renouard discusses the question of universal education, which he considers perfectly practicable, by means, in the first instance, of mutual instruction, which he regards as a great boon to the human race.

Economical of time and money, mutual instruction diminishes the number of masters, and augments that of the pupils; it reinforces authority, and accelerates the progress of learning. The multiplied attacks directed against this method, whose invention will form an epoch in the history of civilization, cannot be explained, except from its very efficiency. But it will stand triumphant over the attacks, which the blindness of party zeal, and the impious proselytism of ignorance may direct against it;—unrivalled in its morality, it diffuses at the same time with instruction that spirit of subordination, justice, and honour, which form its most beautiful characteristics.

The following are enumerated as the instances in which partial attempts have been made to establish in France that kind of instruction, which this work recommends.

1. The Schools of Arts and Trades at Châlons and Angers, permitted to continue by a royal ordinance of the 20th of February, 1807. Its object is to educate master-workmen and journeymen, and to exercise them in the enlightened practice of the mechanic arts. It was removed in 1823 to the city of Toulouse, an event which M. Renouard thinks very inauspicious to it.

2. The Rural Economy and Veterinary Schools at Alfort and Lyons.

3. The School of Miners at Saint Etienne.

4. The three courses of gratuitous instruction at Paris, near the *Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers*, founded by an ordinance in 1819. The application of mechanical and chemical science to the arts, and the economy of laborious life, are taught in these courses by skilful professors. To these larger foundations, may be added several of a humbler character, such as the free schools of drawing at Paris, one for apprentices to the mechanic arts, and the other for girls who wish to devote themselves to the manual arts and trades.

M. Renouard pays a warm tribute of respect to the virtues and the labours of the Abbé Gaultier, "who, after having been one of the most zealous propagators of Mutual Instruction, comprehended also the importance of some kind of secondary instruction *for the people*, and first instituted in his own house a course of gratuitous lessons for that purpose."

The enumeration and description of these French seminaries is followed by a short notice of foreign ones of a similar kind, viz. that of Pestalozzi; the "Agricultural and Mechanical Institutions of Fellenberg at Hofwyl; the School of Industry at Lutschg; its imitator and disciple at Glaris; the industrious

colony of Robert Owen at New Lanark; several German Gymnasiums; and some other establishments worthy to be mentioned in connexion with them; these," adds M. Renouard, "will convince us of the practicability of establishing a system of education specially adapted to those wants which our classical instruction cannot satisfy. So many good examples ought not to be lost."

The course of study recommended for the proposed schools, is this:

1. *The National Language.*—But the study of grammar ought not to be by any means profound in these popular institutions; it would be foreign to the object to carry it far, and to attempt to resolve all the problems of grammar. One thing only is essential; to make the pupils understand and be understood.

2. *Morality.*—Moral teaching will not be complete, if it is confined to the searching for those principles graven on the human heart. The voice of heaven and of society unite with the voice of conscience in proclaiming the great truths of morality, and ought not to be disregarded.

3. *Geography and History.*—We would not ask of history any other knowledge than that which is indispensable for useful reading, for bearing a part in conversation without embarrassment; for keeping up an acquaintance with the passing events of the day. As to geography, all men ought to be acquainted with their own country, and those of which they read, and by some of the numerous vicissitudes in human affairs, may one day visit.

4. *The Elements of the Natural and Mechanical Sciences.*—The occasions for the application of the natural sciences present themselves at every moment, and amidst all the occupations of life. There is no individual who does not experience constantly the necessity of some knowledge, at least, of their first elements.

M. Renouard gives the following list:

Some general notions of natural philosophy, chemistry, natural history, physiology, botany; some principles of husbandry and of hygiene, and some instructions on the revolutions of the heavenly bodies, the motion of the earth, and the principal laws of mechanics.

5. *Arithmetic and the Elements of Geometry.*—The first rules of calculation are taught in the primary schools; but every youth must be greatly benefited by continuing to exercise himself upon these rules, and continuing the study of arithmetic with a view to abridge the methods of calculation. With respect to the elements of geometry, all the laborious professions would find great assistance from them. The Abbé Gaultier published near the close

of his life, a little treatise under the title of "Notions of Practical Geometry necessary for the Exercise of most of the Arts and Trades." This title alone indicates the kind of geometrical studies which ought to enter into a system of popular education.

6. *Drawing.*—All studies are connected with one another; moral instructions mingle with those of grammar and history; the native language is brought to perfection by the exercises in every other branch of study; geography, which is indissolubly united with history, is also connected by innumerable ties with the natural sciences; numerical calculation arranges and defines our elementary ideas in all the sciences; practical geometry, which cannot be separated from the science of numbers, is mingled, and, to a degree, identified with linear drawing; the applications of linear drawing may serve as auxiliaries and guides to other studies. The representation of the most useful farming utensils will combat the force of tradition, which generally resists and rejects improvements, and would aid the introduction of valuable inventions, whose advantages might be made to appear. Elegant and convenient forms delineated by drawing, would furnish workmen with good models for household furniture; the representation of well chosen architectural ornaments, would accustom the eye to simplicity and grace; a few figures would facilitate the knowledge of the sphere and of geography. It is thus that the study of drawing would be doubly profitable by the useful purposes to which it might be directly applied, and by the precision and steadiness which it would impart to the eye and the hand.

7. *Gymnastics.*

This is a mere enumeration of the studies which M. Renouard proposes, and upon each of which he makes many excellent observations, which our limits will not permit us to quote.

One chapter is devoted to the question of the proper organization for these "high schools;" but this depends so much on the customs and state of society in different countries, that no one plan, without considerable modification, would be applicable to all communities and climates. Schools of the kind that have been described, or institutions for the same object, are multiplying very rapidly, and if there is any cause more powerful than others to work important changes in society, it is this, which, in fifty years, will increase at least ten-fold the aggregate of human knowledge; we speak of the extension, not of the advancement of it, though undoubtedly the advancement will be accelerated in at least as great a ratio. The "Mechanics' Institute," about to go into operation in all the principal cities and towns of Great Britain, is one of the most important.

The *Revue Encyclopédique*, which we take this opportunity to say is always filled with every variety of the most valuable knowledge and interesting intelligence, mentions a "high school" of great respectability at *Tobolsk*, the capital of Siberia! and, if we recollect right, that it is connected with a subordinate system of primary instruction. This city is twelve hundred miles east of St Petersburg. It probably owes this improvement, and many others with it, to the Swedish officers banished thither by that illustrious barbarian, Peter the Great, after the battle of Pultowa. If this city can communicate her spirit to other cities, and to the capital of the Northern Empire, there will have been one war of ambition, from which humanity gained something.

We intended to say several things respecting the lucid order, temperate political feeling, elegant style, and occasional eloquence which M. Renouard has given to this excellent work; but we must close this article by stating the facts, that he is a lawyer, and secretary of the Paris "Society of Elementary Education," and that he has lately edited "Mélanges de Morale, d' Economie, et de Politique," selected from the works of Dr Franklin, preceded by an original notice of his life, in two volumes. We know that this work is, and we presume that any other work of M. Renouard must be, interesting and valuable.

The Memoirs of Joseph Fouché, Duke of Otranto, Minister of the General Police of France. Translated from the French. Boston. 1825. 8vo. pp. 474.

This volume purports to be the work of Fouché himself. Some of the reviewers have noticed it seriously and at considerable length, without intimating a doubt of its authenticity; others have agitated the question, and finally yielded to its pretensions. But many still entertain doubts upon the subject; and we have even heard it attributed to a man now living in obscurity in Marseilles. We are unable to decide this question by internal evidence, and we do not think it worth while, at this late period, to enter into a discussion of it. Though the book is drawn up with considerable ability, and contains many facts relating to the French revolution, and the conspicuous characters who figured therein, not before known here, or not now recollected, yet we have no doubt that all this might be easily done by a tolerably shrewd Frenchman upon the spot, with the help of the

chronicles of the times. It is written in a declamatory style, and with great disregard to dates, no uncommon fault, by the way, in French memoirs; and, on the whole, though parts of it are interesting, it is rather tiresome to read through, and leaves a confused impression on the mind. Our limits will not permit any thing like a full analysis of this work, and we shall content ourselves with the following extracts.

This is rather a ludicrous account of the consequence of the English freedom of the press:

The English cabinet, on its guard, and placing little reliance on the sincerity of the first consul, delayed, under certain pretexts, to give up its possession of the Cape of Good Hope, Malta, and Alexandria in Egypt. But this only referred to political relations; Bonaparte was in that respect less assiduous than with reference to the maintenance of his personal authority, which, in the English papers, continued to be attacked with a virulence to which he could not become accustomed. His police was then so feeble, that it was soon seen to struggle without dignity, and without success, against the press and the intrigues of the English. To every memorial presented against the invectives of the London journalists, the ministers of Great Britain replied, that it was one consequence of the liberty of the press; that they were themselves exposed to it; and that there was no recourse against such an abuse, but the law. Blinded by his anger, and ill-advised, the first consul fell into the snare; he committed himself with the pamphleteer Peltier; who was only sentenced to a fine, in order to triumph with more effect over his adversary. A rich subscription, instantly set on foot by the most influential classes in England, put him in a condition to carry on a paper war against Bonaparte, before which the *Moniteur* and the *Argus* turned pale.

Thence the resentment which Bonaparte felt against England. "Every wind which blows," said he, "from that direction, brings nothing but contempt and hatred against my person." From that time he concluded that the peace could not benefit him; that it would not leave him sufficient facility to aggrandize his dominion externally, and would impede the extension of his internal power; that, moreover, our daily relations with England modified our political ideas and revived our thoughts of liberty. From that moment he resolved to deprive us of all connexion with a free people. The grossest invectives against the government and institutions of England soiled our public journals, which assumed a surly and wrathful character. Possessing neither a superior police, nor public spirit, the first consul had recourse to the artifices of his minister of foreign affairs, in order to give a false colour to French opinion.

Though the circumstances attending the murder of the Duke d'Enghien are now pretty well known to the public, they will probably be willing to hear Fouché's edition of the story.

I was one of the first to obtain a knowledge of the mission of Caulaincourt and Ordener to the banks of the Rhine; but when I was informed that the telegraph had just announced the arrest of the prince, and that the order to transfer him from Strasbourg to Paris was given, I foresaw the catastrophe, and I trembled for the life of the noble victim. I hurried to Malmaison, where the first consul then was; it was the 29th Ventose, (20th March, 1804.) I arrived there at nine o'clock in the morning, and I found him in a state of agitation, walking by himself in the park. I entreated permission to say a word to him about the great event of the day. "I see," said he "what brings you; I am about this day to strike a great and necessary blow." I represented to him that France and Europe would be roused against him, if he did not supply undeniable proof that the duke had conspired against his person at Etteinheim. "What necessity is there for proof?" he exclaimed; "Is he not a Bourbon, and the most dangerous of all of them." I persisted in offering arguments of policy calculated to silence the reasons of state. But all in vain; he concluded by impatiently telling me, "Have not you and your friends told me a thousand times that I should conclude by becoming the General Monk of France, and by restoring the Bourbons? Very well! there will no longer be any way of retreating. What stronger guarantee can I give to the revolution, which you have cemented by the blood of a king? It is, besides, indispensable to bring things to a conclusion; I am surrounded by plots; I must imprint terror or perish." In saying these last words, which left nothing more to hope, he had approached the castle; I saw M. de Talleyrand arrive, and a moment after the two consuls, Cambacérès and Lebrun. I regained my carriage, and re-entered my own house in a state of consternation.

The next day I learned, that after my departure a council had been held, and that Savary had proceeded at night to the execution of the unfortunate victim; atrocious circumstances were quoted. Savary had revenged himself, it was reported, of having missed his prey in Normandy, where he had flattered himself with having ensnared, by means of the net-work of the conspiracy of Georges, the Duke de Berri and the Count d'Artois, whom he would have more willingly sacrificed than the Duke d'Enghien. Réal assured me, that he was so little prepared for the nocturnal execution, that he had departed in the morning to go to the prince at Vincennes, expecting to conduct him to Malmaison, and conceiving that the first consul would finish the affair in a

magnanimous manner. But a *coup d'état* appeared indispensable to impress Europe with terror, and eradicate all the germs of conspiracy against his person.

Indignation, which I had foreseen, broke out in the most sanguinary manner. I was not the person who hesitated to express himself with the least restraint respecting this violence against the rights of nations and humanity. "It is more than a crime," I said, "it is a political fault;" words which I record, because they have been repeated and attributed to others.

We may observe, in conclusion, that the character of Fouché is not likely to gain much by the establishment of the authenticity of these Memoirs. They would prove him a more atrocious and cool-blooded villain than he has hitherto been supposed to be.

The Rebels, or Boston before the Revolution. By the Author of Hobomok. Boston. 1826. 12mo. pp. 304.

It may be supposed without presumption or injustice, that any one who persists in offering the fruits of literary labour to the public, is willing to assume the profession of authorship, and to discharge the universal debt of usefulness, by making useful books; and in proportion as he discovers original and vigorous talents, the public are interested that his powers are wisely exerted. It is from these considerations, rather than from its individual merits, that this work deserves particular notice. We do not think it of much importance in itself; but we do think it important, that talents like those exhibited in this and other works of the same author, should be employed to the best advantage. As a novel, it is certainly very respectable; but it is nothing more. Our own country has produced some novels which are better, and it is very far below the best of foreign origin. The following is a brief sketch of the story.

Captain Somerville arrives in Boston in 1765, and finds a young lady, Miss Grace Osborne, intimate in the family of his uncle, Governor Hutchinson. There is also in this family a Miss Fitzherbert, who is supposed to be descended from an English family of rank, and to have been defrauded of a large fortune. Miss Sandford, a maiden sister of the Governor's wife,—"of a certain age,"—meets Miss Fitzherbert, when a child, in Halifax, and brings her home; and her desolate situation and high birth win for her the compassion and protection of the Governor.

Miss Osborne is the daughter of a whig clergyman in Boston, and of course her politics differ from those of Governor Hutchinson's family. Nevertheless, Somerville falls in love with her, and they plight their faith to each other. In the mean time, Miss Fitzherbert becomes somewhat attached to Somerville, and rejects the hand of Miss Osborne's brother Henry; and, having been acknowledged by her family connexions, and declared heiress of a large estate, she goes to England to visit her relations. Somerville goes with her, makes love to her, and they return to Boston, to be married. Miss Fitzherbert finds her friend Grace dying of consumption, and learns that Somerville had won her affection, and pledged to her his own. Thereupon she discards him. Grace dies of consumption,—or a broken heart,—and Somerville dies of shame and despair. Afterwards it is discovered that Miss Fitzherbert has no right to that name; her grandmother, the Meg Merrilies of the story, having put her when an infant into the cradle of the real Miss Fitzherbert, who has been known as Miss Gertrude Wilson. After all these mistakes are rectified, Miss Fitzherbert that was, marries Henry Osborne, and all things go on happily. There are many other characters in the novel; a part of them are historical persons, some of whom bear their own names. The historical events of the day are noticed.

The principal objection we should make to this story, is the mingling of the ordinary incidents of ordinary novels, with the most interesting facts of our history. It is hardly worth while to make American novels, if we are obliged to admit an admixture of the least valuable part of a foreign literature. The adventures which befel Miss Fitzherbert would be difficult, almost to impossibility, any where; but when Boston is assigned them as a local habitation, they seem peculiarly unnatural. Experiment has proved, however, that very good novels may be made out of very bad stories, and we think that this is not a very good novel, because it is deficient in more important respects. The characters are not original or very interesting, and they are neither conceived nor executed with uncommon power. There is little indication of that readiness at seizing peculiar characteristics, or that talent for graphic representation, which in these days of universal competition, are essential to eminent success as a novel-writer. There is little pretension to wit; the jests of the jesting character,—who is no other than the celebrated Mather Byles,—are traditional, and are not very humorously delivered. Still, there are among its pages, proofs that the author has no common

mind. There are beautiful descriptions of natural scenery, eloquent expositions of sentiment, and passages of true pathos. Whether practice will give to the author peculiar skill in the vocation of novel-making, we must be permitted to doubt; but we do not doubt, that the mind which is imperfectly developed in this tale, if it continues to be exercised in literary labour, will, sooner or later, discover its proper employment, and produce valuable and honourable works.

Our readers may expect an extract from "The Rebels;" and we will give them a passage descriptive of Whitfield's preaching.

There was nothing in the appearance of this extraordinary man which would lead you to suppose that a Felix would tremble before him. "He was something above the middle stature, well proportioned, and remarkable for a native gracefulness of manner. His complexion was very fair, his features regular, and his dark blue eyes small and lively: in recovering from the measles, he had contracted a squint with one of them; but this peculiarity rather rendered the expression of his countenance more rememberable, than in any degree lessened the effect of its uncommon sweetness. His voice excelled both in melody and compass; and its fine modulations were happily accompanied by that grace of action which he possessed in an eminent degree, and which has been said to be the chief requisite in an orator."* To have seen him when he first commenced, one would have thought him any but enthusiastic and glowing; but as he proceeded, his heart warmed with his subject, and his manner became impetuous and animated, till, forgetful of every thing around him, he seemed to kneel at the throne of Jehovah, and to beseech in agony for his fellow beings.

After he had finished his prayer, he knelt for a long time in profound silence; and so powerfully had it affected the most heartless of his audience, that a stillness like that of the tomb pervaded the whole house.

Before he commenced his sermon, long, darkening columns crowded the bright sunny sky of the morning, and swept their dull shadows over the building, in fearful augury of the storm.

His text was, "Strive to enter in at the strait gate; for many, I say unto you, shall seek to enter in, and shall not be able."

"See that emblem of human life," said he, as he pointed to a shadow that was flitting across the floor. "It passed for a moment, and concealed the brightness of heaven from our view—but

* This description of Whitfield's person, from Southey's Life of Wesley, appears in the book without quotation marks, by a mistake in the printing, as we are informed, which the author had no opportunity to correct.

it is gone. And where will ye be my hearers, when your lives have passed away like that dark cloud? Oh, my dear friends, I see thousands sitting attentive, with their eyes fixed on the poor, unworthy preacher. In a few days, we shall all meet at the judgment-seat of Christ. We shall form a part of that vast assembly which will gather before his throne; and every eye will behold the Judge. With a voice whose call you must abide and answer, he will inquire whether on earth ye strove to enter in at the strait gate—whether you were supremely devoted to God—whether your hearts were absorbed in him. My blood runs cold when I think how many of you will then seek to enter in, and shall not be able. Oh, what plea can you make before the Judge of the whole earth? Can you say it has been your whole endeavour to mortify the flesh with its affections and lusts? that your life has been one long effort to do the will of God? No! you must answer, I made myself easy in the world, by flattering myself that all would end well; but I have deceived my own soul, and am lost.

"You, O false and hollow christian, of what avail will it be that you have done many things—that you have read much in the sacred word—that you have made long prayers—that you have attended religious duties, and appeared holy in the eyes of men? What will all this be, if instead of loving Him supremely, you have been supposing you should exalt yourself in heaven, by acts really polluted and unholy?

"And you, rich man, wherefore do you hoard your silver? Wherefore count the price you have received for him whom you every day crucify, in your love of gain? Why, that when you are too poor to buy a drop of cold water, your beloved son may be rolled to hell in his chariot pillowed and cushioned about him."

His eye gradually lighted up, as he proceeded, till towards the close, it seemed to sparkle with celestial fire.

"Oh, sinners!" he exclaimed, "by all your hopes of happiness, I beseech you to repent. Let not the wrath of God be awakened. Let not the fires of eternity be kindled against you. See there!" said he, pointing to the lightning, which played on the corner of the pulpit—"'T is a glance from the angry eye of Jehovah! Hark!" continued he, raising his finger in a listening attitude, as the distant thunder grew louder and louder, and broke in one tremendous crash over the building. "It was the voice of the Almighty, as he passed by in his anger!"

As the sound died away, he covered his face with his hands, and knelt beside his pulpit, apparently lost in inward and intense prayer. The storm passed rapidly by, and the sun, bursting forth in his might, threw across the heavens a magnificent arch of peace. Rising, and pointing to the beautiful object, he exclaimed, "Look

upon the rainbow; and praise him that made it. Very beautiful it is in the brightness thereof. It compasseth the heavens about with glory; and the hands of the Most High have bended it."

The effect was astonishing. Even Somerville shaded his eyes when he pointed to the lightning, and knelt as he listened to the approaching thunder;—while the deep sensibility of Grace, and the thoughtless vivacity of Lucretia, yielded to the powerful excitement, in an unrestrained burst of tears.

"Who could resist such eloquence?" said Lucretia, as they mingled with the departing throng.

Foreign Scenes and Travelling Recreations. By JOHN HOWISON, Esq. Author of "Sketches of Upper Canada." 2 vols. 12mo. Edinburgh and London. 1825.

THIS is an amusing book, written on the thrifty principle, that nothing should be lost. It is a collection of little adventures and excursions—the important reflections which a fit of sea-sickness may excite,—meditations on boarding-house keepers, and the philosophy of fitting out for a few days' voyage. There is a good deal of novelty in the East Indian scenery, and pleasantry of style throughout; and it will stand in great demand in hotel and steam-boat libraries. These volumes will be to be found in the cabin of every Havre packet for the next three trips, duly wrapped up in strong paper, with all the dogs-ears and annotations of a circulating popularity. It is a very satisfactory book to readers of light attention, and if it gets transformed to the cheaper style of a Philadelphia reprint, will be largely drawn upon by the provincial newspapers. The author, who has a most magnanimous dislike of us poor Americans, will be well battered by our zealous daily journalists, in many a thick defence, and sharp retort, and we should not be surprised if the East India Company, in whose service he is, should come in for a little abuse reflective. With these claims on our attention, we must give Mr Howison a page or two.

The first Recreation is smartly denominated "Life at Sea," and carefully sets forth the wondrous impositions effected by rival packet owners, and the dreadful inflictions of a few days on board ship. It is surprising, however, how far every thing is compensated in this life. There is no more active deity than *Nemesis* in the Pantheon. It is pleasant to see "Foreign Scenes," we mean both the things and the book that describes them, yet it is un-

pleasant to be shut up to the same scene of uniform dulness for a month together, and the book is too long by a volume and a half; it is very pleasant to sit on the deck of a fine American packet ship, hanging on a fair breeze of six knots, and quite unpleasant to be fixed to your birth, in a storm, when she is scudding before a heavy gale, "with but one plank between you and destruction." It is excellent to meet with pleasant men and lovely women at sea, for more intimacy and friendship can be gained with them thus, than in a century ashore; while the passengers, *au contraire*, whom Mr Howison describes as quarrelsome, cowardly, or vulgar, are dreadful inflictions, and lead one almost to the murderous remark, so often made at sea, that "the sooner they go over the standing part of the main sheet, the better,"—which a lawyer would call a dangerous *adminiculum* of evidence, to prove the speaker an accessory before the fact of homicide. The phosphorescence of the sea, which Mr Howison wonders at, is very beautiful,—he very dull for wondering at it, instead of admiring it,—and the latitude he was in necessarily very high, if he could not, as he avers, find the phosphorescent substance on taking it in; whereas, the iron colour of the water, under the clouds of an approaching squall, is dreadful, and the "taking it in," which usually follows in great abundance, still worse; sailors are not to be blamed for being superstitious, if they cannot get higher wages and better education; and, in reverse, Mr Howison, of the East India Company's service, has no right to believe, in the story of a stormy "petrel's" having caused a man's death, nor of the spectre of an ordinary seaman's being employed in stowing the foretopsail, seeing that this is nonsense too dull for ridicule. And so much for Life at Sea.

"Boarding-Houses" are a great *crux* to the refined Mr Howison. He states, among other inconveniences in those of Havana, that if a man won't come home to dinner, it is ruled by the landlord, that he lose it altogether; and if he does not return to the hotel within a certain hour of the evening, he runs the risk of being shut out all night. This he considers a proof "of the ferocity of manner in the Spanish West Indies." Besides, the master of the boarding-house "boldly contradicts any thing his guests advance, if he differs from them in opinion!" This is truly savage, and if the great South American expedition should take Cuba, they ought to provide in the first constitutional act, that no man shall lose his dinner and bed by not going where they are to be found; and firm restriction should be put on all difference of opinion between landlords and travellers. In this hor-

rible state of boarding-houses, the intelligent writer asserts, that people of respectability leave them in a few days, disgusted, as we suppose, with keeping good hours, and being contradicted at table, and their place is occupied by "American shipmasters." And now comes a little picture of American character, for which we make our best bow to the East Indian.

> The captain of an American trader will probably occupy another part of the table, and display the characteristics of his countrymen, by his vanity, love of argument, indulgence in rhodomontade, and jealous anxiety to secure national respect. The person who occupies the next chair, may be a merchant of New Orleans, who will talk incessantly of gaming, drinking, adultery, and duel-fighting, and attempt to bully into submission those who presume to dissent from his opinion, or to doubt the accuracy of what he believes to be true.

This last Louisianian must be a thorn to the landlord, who, Mr Howison states, is so fond of contradicting; and the other, who was so anxious to get national respect, must have come poorly off with the author. There are, however, a great many respectable people in the United States, we can assure Mr Howison, in spite of the company he has principally kept, with the class of West India coasters. We take a Deal and Dover smuggler, on the other hand, to be more suited to his favourite models of character; and having had a very unwilling personal acquaintance with some of his countrymen of this class, we recommend it to him, while cultivating their society, to be as heavily armed and as lightly cashed as convenient. This boasting trait of national vanity is a ridiculous thing, and justly so to Mr Howison, who probably believes that one Englishman can beat three Frenchmen, and takes as proofs the embarkation at Corunna, the attack on New Orleans, and Napoleon's surprise of the English on the 17th June. Of English extraction ourselves, we have the utmost regard for their invincibility, but should hesitate before we proved our hereditary claim to it by making an onslaught on three cuirassiers of the French guard at once. All this, however, is nothing to "Havana," which makes the third of Mr Howison's tracts. The following is rather a sprightly picture, which, however, we imagine oftener appears, in the manner described, among Mr Howison's acquaintance than in a higher sphere of society.

> The most interesting and most frequented public amusements in Havana are balls, which take place during religious festivals.

On such occasions, it is customary for two or more individuals who have large houses in the vicinity of the church where the feast is celebrated, to throw them open for the reception of *genteel* company, none of whom pay for any thing, *except when they* of light and music. * * This occasionally takes place under the *call for refreshments;* the profits of which defray the expenses roofs of very wealthy and respectable families; while persons of inferior rank in the neighbourhood usually adopt the same plan, and allow their houses to become a place of resort for the lower classes of society. * *

On entering the place where the ball was held, I found myself in a large saloon, the lower end of which was occupied by card tables. Crowds of people stood around these. Large piles of dollars and doubloons lay exposed to view on the table that first attracted my attention, and the person who presided made a distribution of each once or twice a minute. * * The person that next attracted my attention, was a young foreigner, whose behaviour showed that he had not been accustomed to resort to "public gaming-houses. (The most wealthy and respectable roofs in Havana!") * * Many of them wore blue surtouts and boots, and some carried umbrellas, and smoked cigars, and all had an air of dishabille and awkwardness about them that ill befitted a ball-room.

Now if this is a picture of the most "wealthy," "creditable," and reputable society in Havana, we are sorry on one account, and content on another, seeing that our countrymen in the coasting-trade abovementioned by Mr Howison, seem to have chosen, with national acuteness, the better part, in fixing themselves in the hotels. For where the richest and most respectable of the society keep "public gaming-houses,"—pay for their lights and music by selling cigars and spirits,—wear "their umbrellas and surtouts" in a ball-room, in which they amuse themselves by "smoking;" and are plainly set down as, on such occasions, "all" very awkward and slovenly; we prefer the boarding-house decidedly of the less refined, as the more comfortable *gîte*. But we incline to suspect, that Mr Howison mistook a temporary sailors' booth at a fair, for the house of one of the most "respectable, wealthy, and creditable families" in Havana. The custom of gaming for a livelihood is certainly very good breeding in some parts of Europe; but without pretending to any acquaintance with West Indian manners, the account of the author himself bears sufficient marks of his own weakness and credulity to destroy its value as a description of the real state of its best society. It is surprising, how unfortunate our English

brethren are in respect of the company they meet abroad. It may be partly owing to their air, which Lord Chesterfield avers to be, in the case of his young noble countrymen at foreign courts, that of "a man about to steal a tankard;" but from whatever cause it arises, it is certain that your true British traveller uniformly succeeds in finding the worst company to be had. Those who have done us the honour to come to the United States are quite a case in point. The very best circles might have been open to receive them, from our fondness for our ancestry, and the community of language; but it is very remarkable that their researches seem to have extended simply to the *locale*, which no American gentleman ever sullied himself by entering; and their communications to have been carried on in language which an American gentleman never heard. It may be a propensity of the travelling English, we are sure our late illustrious German and Italian visitors will be ready witnesses to the fact, that it is not the *misfortune* of British tourists that they have had no more agreeable receptions.

But with all this, Mr Howison is an amusing writer, and describes with Flemish minuteness, his various scenes and sights. In the miscellaneous form in which these tracts are thrown together, a pretty close imitation of the Sketch Book, an East Indian scene comes next to the last we have alluded to. The following is certainly a lively picture of an Oriental *bazaar*, and proves its own accuracy in part, by the close resemblance it bears to similar scenes in the "Arabian Nights," that delightful work, which possesses almost all the value of history with the charming grace of fiction.

A stranger should visit the Bombay bazaar in the evening. It is a street about half a mile long, with shops on each side throughout its whole extent. These are brilliantly lighted up at night, and one in strolling along may observe distinctly every thing that goes on in them. He will here see a range of cloth-shops, full of native women examining the goods, disputing about their value, and urging the seller to lower his price. Then his attention will be drawn to the shed of a brass-manufacturer, where highly-polished jars of all sizes stand glittering in rows, and where the incessant hammering of the artificers drowns the voices of the crowds in their vicinity. On advancing a little further, he will see a confectioner's shop hung with festoons of dried fruits and sweetmeats, and environed by crowds of children longing for the luxuries that are displayed before them. The next shed will be that of a vegetable merchant, who offers for sale the various edible productions of the east, from the pine-apple down to the common

yam; opposite him perhaps is the office of a shroff, or native banker, who sits at a table covered with gold, silver, and copper coins, and changes money at a small per centage. His scales and weights stand beside him, and he subjects to their test every piece of metal that is presented to him for negociatoin. A dealer in grain next attracts the attention; the back part of his shop is crowded with bags of rice, grain, maize, &c. and in front, samples of the different articles are exhibited in large baskets, from which he measures out the quantities required by his customers. A little way off will be a barber's shop full of people, and resounding with their voices and merriment. Its bustling possessor talks with volubility, and the pleased and attentive countenances of his auditors testify that he is a humourist and a story-teller. Meanwhile the street is crowded with men, women, and children, of different casts and complexions, and with donkies, oxen, and Paria dogs, the noise of whose united voices is deafening and incessant. Sometimes a Parsee drives furiously through the bazaar in a gig, and disturbs the loitering throng, and makes it open its ranks with sudden haste and alarm; or a European in a palanquin, surrounded with panting *himmauls*, will force his way amidst the motley assemblage. The tumult of the whole scene not unfrequently receives some addition from the meeting and intermingling of two herds of bullocks, carrying bells upon their necks, and groaning under the blows inflicted by their irritated drivers; and at this crisis, perhaps a marriage-procession passes down the bazaar, accompanied by hosts of people bearing torches, and by a party of native musicians singing, and beating large drums and blowing horns. Things now reach an extremity which is insupportable to a European, and he must immediately take flight if he wishes to retain his senses and to preserve his hearing.

In the course of an excursion, made in company with some officers of the British army, a regular boar-hunt took place. "A remarkably large, swift, ferocious hog," on this occasion, it seems, charged some of the company, among others His Britannic Majesty's (the best cavalry officer in Europe) aid-de-camp and the author, and seems to have made some impression on his foes. His Majesty's aid received the boar on the point of his spear, which, however, broke against his teeth, and, to use the author's words, he "contrived to escape." We imagine the escape, considering "the serious apprehensions" the foe caused, was far from disagreeable to the other party. Our traveller, it seems, made also soon after an attempt to penetrate the recesses of a pagoda during the celebration of a deep religious festival, "when two Bramins waved him back with impatient gestures," stating he could not be admitted to the "presence of the god." Had a set of East

Indians, in full costume, made an effort to come inside the rails of the altar at St Paul's, during communion, we presume the reception would have been nearly the same, though perhaps not without the Bow street gentlemen being requested to assist them in their subsequent visits to other parts of London.

In a succeeding number, Mr Howison enters into a discussion on West Indian piracy, where his old prejudice against our United States seamen breaks out, and he states that the accounts in our papers of the enormities committed by these savages are highly exaggerated. We must be permitted to express surprise at this, for the author, in his visits to the West Indies, really must have had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with facts, which we learn only from official evidence and the public conflicts and executions of these desperate men. He states, that "the private captains uniformly behaved with politeness and moderation, and never offered violence or insult, provided their requisitions were readily complied with." On the other hand, we can hardly believe him to be ignorant that their outrages have exceeded in really unnatural brutality the worst on the long records of civilized or savage cruelty. We perfectly remember the testimony of the mate of an American schooner, whose name is not now known to us, respecting the coldblooded and *facetious* torture, mutilation, and massacre of the whole crew but himself—one only of these instances of desperate barbarity. By the gallant and generous co-operation of the English and American squadrons, however, it is fortunate that these "polite and moderate" gentlemen have been sent to their Chesterfields to take another lesson.

There is, however, in both these volumes a great deal of amusing, if trifling matter. The author is good-humoured enough, except at the thought of an American, who is a sore enemy, in the Indian seas, to a gentleman in the service of the East India Company, seeing that his unfettered trade, his enterprising crews, and light, fast sailing vessels are rather against the profits of the lumbering two thousand ton weight of the great Company's *castles*. The vast Roman galley, which the commentators have been so much puzzled with to know how her banks could be placed and her seamen stowed, had about the same chance with a Carthaginian barge, that one of these huge civil men of war has against a Baltimore pilot-boat schooner.

MISCELLANY.

THE FINE ARTS.

The sensations of interest excited by the phrase at the head of this article, are not confined to the professed artist, nor to those who have had opportunity for a regular study of the arts. There are others, who have no remembrance of the time, when they did not derive pleasure from the contemplation of specimens or possibilities in some one or more of the departments included in the appellation; and if they have ever desired to pass the boundaries of their native country, and to roam through the territories of more ancient nations, it has been for the sake of feasting on those productions of genius, which exist only where ages have rolled over man in a civilized state, and poured into his lap an abundance of superfluous wealth. Not that one should, or would be likely to be satisfied with the merely selfish enjoyment to be derived from such contemplations, for it seems hardly supposable that there should not exist the desire to be instrumental in transferring something to one's native land, which should aid in her progress to the same state of refinement. The traveller for such a purpose, although he might not have the ability to furnish himself with productions of the pencil or the chisel, from the hands of eminent masters, might store his mind with ideas in that more useful art, which provides habitations for man; edifices for the purposes of legislation, the administration of justice, the pursuit of learning, the transaction of business; and temples for the worship of the Most High. In the construction of all these, even if nothing more be aimed at than simple comfort, convenience, and an inoffensive adjustment of the component parts, some other power is requisite than the hand or head of the mere mechanic. The details of the building art, in its adaptation to the numberless purposes connected with the employments and the enjoyments of civilized society, afford ample scope for the exercise of the most fertile invention and cultivated taste, without embracing those conceptions of grandeur and embellishment, which may be said to belong peculiarly to the poetry of the art, and to an advanced stage of wealth and refinement. A young republic is not deserving of reproach that she does not exhibit many specimens of the magnificent and splendid; but she is so, if she does not apply the means she possesses to the truest purposes of utility, and according to the principles of good taste. To do this, she must call into her service minds capable of serving her—minds of such a mould and of such a sort of cultivation, as I will venture to denominate practical geniuses;

such as, exclusively, neither float in the regions of ether, nor crawl on the surface of grosser matter; such as know how to use their wings or their feet, as occasion may require; such as have power over the hidden sparks which give life to forms, and can command the invisible chain which binds component parts in one harmonious whole,—yet such, as are willing and able to trace the progress of the lifeless form from its rudest state, and of each component part from its most disjointed condition; such as are acquainted with all the details of the art, and are not above the labour of following them through their endless ramifications for the direction of the mechanic.

I have been led to these remarks by the belief, that the combination of these qualities is not common in this country, or at least in this part of it, and without them no one can justly be denominated an architect. On the one hand, we have men of education, who have read on the general principles of the art, or travelled in foreign lands, delighting their eyes and improving their taste by beholding the fine specimens which they passed in review, who yet have not pursued the subject so far into detail, or made so close an inspection, as to enable them either to imitate or to form new combinations. On the other, there are some of our practical mechanics in this department, who have done themselves much credit by the ingenuity and fidelity with which they have executed their work, and have shown an aptness in transferring from books, and even in forming new arrangements for the comfort and convenience, and perhaps appearance of our dwellings, which would lead to higher anticipations, had their early education been liberal. But neither of these is all we want, and the two have not affinity enough for amalgamation.

We are told, however, that we are improving in the art. I am willing to believe it to be so, in some degree, and wish it were in a greater. That this will be the case ere long, there is reason to hope, from the visible marks of increased attention, and the natural progress of every thing in this time of peace and prosperity. As omens, we see now and then a scrap in a newspaper touching the subject; it was embraced in a late eloquent Commencement oration; and the learned Rumford Professor treats of it in his comprehensive course of lectures. It is undoubtedly true, that considerable improvements have been made in the construction of our private dwellings and places of business, and that many of them embrace nearly all that is requisite in buildings of these classes. But it is in public edifices that correct specimens of the art are to be looked for, and it is by them that we shall be judged. Have we done as well as we might in this respect? Do our modern houses for worship exemplify the solemn grandeur appropriate to buildings erected for that use? Are the modern halls of our most

celebrated seat of learning such as it is desirable that an institution of that kind should be able to set forth as models? Above all, does the most public building in our Commonwealth do justice to the high rank of the state, and to its own conspicuous location? To the latter question, I answer, that at the time of its erection it did, although not wholly without fault. The ingenious arrangement of the component parts, the style of finish, and its correct adjustment to the elegant site on which it was placed, and to the surrounding objects, as they then existed, reflected great credit on the architect. These surrounding objects, alas, have since been deplorably changed, with an effect like that of removing the drapery from a picture, leaving the principal subject to stand out naked and without relief. Those who were acquainted with the scenery as it then was, can never cease to lament the change. That remarkable mound which supported its rear, and which probably had not its parallel in any city on earth, (reflecting a beauty on Boston, whose loss can never be repaired by the artificial embellishments of ages, with the expense of millions) and the fine estate on the west, which should have been purchased for the use of the governor, were essential parts in the picture, and ought to have been preserved at almost any expense. With regard to the material of the building, no one then thought, or could reasonably have been expected to think, of any other than brick. The art of splitting granite was known here but to a single individual, I believe, if at all, and that of hammering it was in a rude state.

But what shall I say of the building in its present condition?—undermined in a most hideous manner—deprived of the massive walls which surrounded its court-yards, and, with a row of flourishing trees, now gone, afforded some relief after the removal of the beautiful hill in its rear—perched on the brows of a high and precipitous glacis, so high and steep, as to be incapable of sustaining itself against the action of frost, and so near the flank walls of the building, as to occasion the painful, disgusting, idea of instability, insecurity—beside adding to the tall appearance of the ends in proportion to their breadth, which was perhaps the greatest original fault of this edifice. Nor is this all, for I have a few words to say to the repairs, so called, of the present season, premising that I know not the name of an individual who has had any particular agency in them. In truth, they are the acts of the public, and mine among the rest. I treat merely the abstract questions of taste, using this building as an example, by way of illustration.

It is stated to be a fact, that the brick walls of the building required some repairs, which could not be effected without defacing them, so as to render the painting of the whole necessary. It may be so, yet I should consider it far from certain that our masons

had not ingenuity enough for such a purpose. But it is farther said, that the bricks had acquired a dusky, dull appearance, and therefore must be painted. Here taste starts this general question, whether every appearance of the effect of time on a building, especially a public building, must be removed; whether nothing can look right, that does not look new; whether because we cannot have any thing as yet which wears the appearance of much antiquity, care should be taken that we never do; whether, on the contrary, every public edifice ought not to bear upon its face the signatures of its age, and carry with it to posterity the record of its birth, not merely in the Anno Domino which the chisel may have inscribed on its front, but in the corresponding marks which the hand of time shall have impressed throughout its surface? But admit that it was proper that these brick walls should be painted. The question then occurs, in what manner? The answer is, in imitation of Chelmsford granite, to be sure. But let us advert to principles a moment. Is the eye of taste ever *satisfied* with such imitations? It cannot be deceived by them. It still knows the building to be brick, and a brick building pretending to be what it is not. Is it not therefore more likely to be offended at the hypocrisy, than gratified with its flimsy covering? If it be fit, for any cause, that bricks should be painted, is it not in better taste to preserve their appearance as bricks (which may be done to perfection), than to attempt an imitation of any thing else, which can never be considered as any thing but an imitation, and therefore inferior to a reality which in itself is inferior to the thing attempted to be imitated. We all admit that a building of stone is far handsomer than one of any other material, and have regretted that stone was not in use at the time our State-house was built. But that it was not, is a historical fact. And have not posterity a right to the monuments of this fact unobscured? Or is it proper to leave them in doubt whether stone might not be in use, and whether the parsimony of our government had not rejected the substance, and resorted to the shadow? What will our Antiquarian Society say about it a hundred and fifty years hence?

But let it be conceded that these suggestions are without weight, and come to the conclusion that it was proper to paint the brick walls in imitation of Chelmsford granite, and this I presume will be the popular voice, for it is now *the fashion*. This admission will not, however, imply that no reference is to be had to the nature of things, but every thing to be put at the disposal of vague whim; that because we paint brick walls, we may paint granite foundations; that while we convert the superstructure into granite, we may convert the base into sand-stone! By

our republican principles, men of taste have the same right to the comforts of life as other people; but lo! they are forbidden a ride through Beacon street, or a walk in the Mall or on the Common, upon pain of being put to the torture! Stone painted! Painted stone!! No language can illustrate this offence. Common sense cries out as loudly against it, as cultivated taste; and here it is attended with the aggravation, that the base of the building was before exactly what it ought to be, hewn granite—of a coarser kind, to be sure, than that imitated in the superstructure, but the better for that. It is a distinction which is always proper, it being according to the principles of order, that grosser and more ponderous materials should be at the base, finer and lighter in the body, finer still in the ornaments. A building may indeed be wholly of the same material without offence. But what have we here? In addition to the inexpiable crime of painting stone at all, we have a granite superstructure, and a sandstone foundation! the finer and frailer material placed as a support to the coarser and more hardy! Had the base actually been of sandstone, or marble, it would have settled the point against painting the brick walls in imitation of granite. There is no one who would not instinctively shudder at the thought of originally constructing a building in that way; and can it be less improper to imitate such a construction?

My communication has been extended to so great a length, that there is no room for a peroration, nor for an additional remark or two I intended to make. I conclude, therefore, with asking my readers, how they like a *bottle-green dome?* and expressing a wish that means may be devised for purchasing the beautiful vacant lot in the centre of the city, which will probably be for sale ere long, for the purpose of erecting a building to be devoted to the cultivation of the fine arts, itself being a chaste specimen of one of them.

B.

PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

XVI. MANUFACTURES, IN RELATION TO THE GENERAL INTERESTS OF SOCIETY.

MANUFACTURES, operating by the powers of nature through the means of machinery and skill, is a branch of industry which does not arise out of the necessities of man, neither does it necessarily grow up from his abundance.

It is only through public encouragement and protection, that it can be introduced into a country.

Before it can be established, capital must have been accumulated, and a competent degree of skill acquired. These are

seldom united in the same person. One person possesses the capital, and another the skill; and without their co-operation its establishment cannot take place. No person will endanger his capital in a new enterprise, without a prospect of profit which more than counterbalances the hazard of loss.

Their co-operation, therefore, to this end, cannot be brought about without public regulations, which alone can afford that prospect of safety and profit which induces to the undertaking.

It is by the regulations only, which impose duties on the import of foreign manufacture, that the inducements are afforded to the employment of capital and skill in the establishment of domestic manufacture.

But although capital and skill and a protecting duty are pre-requisites to the establishment of manufacture; yet it is only while the new establishments are forming, maturing, and perfecting their skill and machinery, that protecting duties will be required.

The first effect of the introduction of manufacture is to produce a great augmentation of the public wealth, by the additional value which it immediately imparts to all real estate, within a marketable distance of its establishments.

And then, through the labour employed in forming the establishments, a great amount of capital is put in circulation, which, in passing from hand to hand, produces increased activity in every department of industry.

Villages, schools, and churches arise around the manufactory, by the means it affords for their erection and support.

The farmer has a better market, the mechanic more employment, the labourer higher wages, and those of other useful vocations a greater income.

And unless the labour employed in forming the establishments be taken from other branches of industry to the diminution of their products, the whole value produced by it, is, to the amount of it, so much clear gain to the country.

But the labour heretofore employed for that purpose has not been to diminish, but to increase production in other branches. For to increase the number of labourers in one employment does not reduce production in others, except when the whole productive labour of a country is fully employed. But this is not the case with us. We have more labour than there is profitable employment for.

If the new establishments afford to the employment of capital a greater profit, and to labour higher wages, than their employment in other branches of industry affords, they will attract surplus capital and labour from the other branches. This, by increasing competition in the new establishments, gradually lowers the profits of their capital, and the wages of the labour which they employ;

while, at the same time, by diminishing competition in the other branches, it raises the profits of the capital, and the wages of the labour which these employ.

And thus, as the profits of capital and the wages of labour are lowered in the one, so they are raised in the others, till they both, in all employments, come to a new level, but to a higher one than that at which they stood before.

The advantages flowing from the establishment of manufactories are not, however, confined to the section of country in which they may happen to be situated, but are extended through the intervention of commerce over the Union.

The planter shares them, for example. His interest is promoted by the increased consumption which the domestic manufacture produces, of his great staple, cotton. He is also benefited by the manufactured products being supplied to him in return, at a cheaper rate than they would have been, if public encouragement had not established manufacture among us.

All others are benefited in like manner, if not in the same degree.

Manufacture, in the multiplication of its products, increases the demand for the products of the other branches of industry,—in so much as there is more produced to be given in exchange for those other products.

The industry of the nation is productive in proportion to the capital and skill employed through the medium of machinery in aid of labour to accelerate production; and not in proportion to the number of its labourers. It is in manufacture, that capital and skill are employed in the greatest degree in proportion to labour; and it is there, that by their means, labour is rendered more productive than it is in any other employment.

The products of the labour of a few hands in manufacture will purchase the products of many hands in agriculture.

Manufacture has, in this country, already so multiplied its products as to supply commerce, both inland and foreign, with considerable additional employment in their distribution.

It has also added considerably to our exports, by which the imports are increased, and the public revenue augmented.

XVII. THE MECHANIC ARTS, IN RELATION TO THE GENERAL INTERESTS OF SOCIETY.

The mechanic arts comprehend all the divisions of manual labour, in which art, skill, and dexterity are employed to modify and compound matter, materials, and rude products, and to adapt them to the consumption, use, and gratification of man.

The individuals employed in these arts, form a numerous class in society, and compose the most considerable portion of the population of towns and cities.

is through the general consumption and the labours of this chiefly, that the perishable and consumable surplus of agri-re is converted into fixed and durable property.

the mechanic arts, it is not so much by the employment of al, which merely supplies the tools to work with and the rials to work upon, as it is by the diligence, skill, and dex-r with which labour is prosecuted, directed, and applied to its us objects, that the industry of this class, in proportion to its iitude, is more productive than the industry of the agricultural.

H. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

GRECIAN LIBERTY.

Glorious Vision! who art thou,
With thy starry crown of light,
Like the diadem of night
On the Æthiop monarch's brow?—
And why art thou descending
From thy bright Olympian throne,
And thy lavish glory lending,
Like the ever-rolling sun,
To the self-devoted band
On the threshold of their land?
Few, but hardy are their ranks,
And they never will retire,
Though ten thousand on their flanks
Hurl a storm of steel and fire—
Though an iron tempest rain
Death and darkness, till the day
Pass in dim eclipse away—
Though the thunderbolts of war,
Plough their furrows in the plain,
And the echoing mountains bay
To the tumult from afar.

O! bright and glorious creature,
Winged, and mailed, and armed for fight;
Though beautiful in feature,
Like a Spirit of delight;
Yet the arching of thy brow,
And thy proud and gallant form,
Tell of one who rides the storm,

When the sternest warriors bow,
And the bravest yield their breath
At the summoning of Death.

There thou standest on the mountains,
And the sparkle of thy spear,
Like a sunbeam on the fountains
To the gallant few below,
Is a sign of wrath and fear
To the blind and brutal foe;—
Like a beacon let it blaze
Broad and flaring, till it daze
All who come with foot profane
To this consecrated plain,
Where thy pure and perfect shrine
Youths and maidens loved to twine
With the laurel and the myrtle—
And the shadow of thy grove,
Haunt of innocence and love,
Heard the winged arrows hurtle
From the flowery-wreathen bow,
With a whisper, like the flow
Of a brook, that winds afar
Underneath the Evening Star.

O! they were happy days,
When reposing in the shade
Elms, and vines, and poplars made,
It was all thy joy to gaze
On the races and the dances,
Twining hands and burning glances,
Where Passion went and came,
Like an arrow tipped with flame.
Though thou didst often lie
With a pleased and placid eye,
As thy children took their pleasure,
And the merry flute and viol
Told, in light and airy measure,
All the joys and sports of leisure;
Not the less, to meet the trial,
Thou would'st gird thy warlike arms,
And with bare and eager blade,
On, through dangers and alarms,
To the wreath of Victory wade.
Thou could'st leave thy pleasant woods,
And the harvest of the plain,
And along the torrent floods

To the frozen mountains climb,
Where they reared their fronts sublime;
Or scorning Slavery's chain,
Make thy dwelling on the main.
From the Dorian rocks and caves,
When the gorged and glutted foe
Lay in careless ease below,
Like an Alpine stream that raves
When the autumn rains are pouring,
And the pines in mist are towering;
So thou did'st rush and sweep
To the dark, remorseless deep,
With thy fury and thy force,
Shield and chariot, man and horse;
And thy sword wrought far and wide,
Till the land was purified.

And now thou dost awake,
And thy dream of ages break—
From the halls of ice and snow,
Whence thy classic rivers flow;
From thy palace in the clouds,
Where the light of evening runs
On the rolling wreath that shrouds
The last refuge of thy sons—
Peaks, that never Turk has trod,
Where the armed and ardent Klepht
Found his shelter, when he left,
For a prey to wasting fires,
All the temples of his God,
And the dwellings of his sires;—
From thy caverns in the rock,
From thy dark and hidden hold,
Thou hast nerved thee to the shock,
And thy warning shout has rolled—
Height from height has caught the sound
And thy foes in haste retire;
Now the tumult rises higher—
'T is a nation's cry of joy—
None to ravage and destroy—
Not a foreign foot is found
On our consecrated ground.

P.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

The Troubadour, Catalogue of Pictures, and Historical Sketches. By L. E. L. Author of "The Improvisatrice." Philadelphia. 1825. 12mo. pp. 280.

We must again give want of room as an excuse for not assigning to Miss Landon's new volume a place in our department of reviews. For our table is loaded with books and reviews of books, which are more generally interesting to the American public, and which we may not throw aside to make space for lighter criticism.

The Troubadour has, with some defects, a great many beauties, and will, we think, be generally admired by lovers of poetry,—certainly by the youthful. It is a tale of love,—of chivalrous love,—as may be inferred from the previous writings, the taste, and the age of the authoress. Its beauty lies in its easy freedom of versification, and in those animated decsriptions, which were the great charm of the Improvisatrice. Its principal defects are, excessive use of ornaments and of glittering epithets, and, occasionally, of a style much too discursive. We have not space to quote from the poem, in support of these opinions, and refer for their correctness to the volume itself.

It commences with a charming picture of the river Durance, as it is seen from the ancient castle situated upon its banks, and of the glories of a Provençal sunset. Raymond, the last of a race who have left him nothing but a sword and escutcheon, is represented gazing upon the beautiful sky. His poetical mood prompts the authoress to the following reflections:

Alas! for him whose youthful fire
Is vowed and wasted on the lyre—
Alas! for him who shall essay
The laurel's long and dreary way!
Mocking will greet, neglect will chill
His spirit's gush, his bosom's thrill,
And, worst of all, that heartless praise
Echoed from what another says.
He dreams a dream of life and light,
And grasps the rainbow that appears
Afar all beautiful and bright,
And finds it only formed of tears.
Ay, let him reach the goal, let fame
Pour glory's sunlight on his name,
Let his songs be on every tongue,
And wealth and honours round him flung:
Then let him show his secret thought,
Will he not own them dearly bought?

A lovely girl breaks in upon his trance, to inform him that a herald waits in the court below to claim succour for the Lady of Clarin against the armed array of one Sir Herbert. Eva, the fair pursuivantess, is a daughter of the former lord of the castle, Sir Amirald, who had wedded in a very romantic manner, and disappeared in fine keeping with the story of that occasion, leaving his estate and his infant daughter to the care of his brother. Raymond departs to do battle upon the beleaguerers of Clarin. He performs signal services, and receives his recompense in a pair of knightly spurs, and a sword taken from the very thigh of his general. Forgetting the gentle Eva, he becomes enamoured of the ward of the Lady of Clarin, a maiden very beautiful, but capricious and heartless, who at a revel, in the wantonness of power, throws her glove to a lion going at large in the court, and sends Raymond to fetch it. He does as he is bid, but, the duty performed, he flies to horse, and never sees her more.

In the temper of mind provoked by Lady Adeline's want of feeling, he encounters a band of crusaders going to war upon the Moors of Spain. He joins them, and fights manfully under the banner of the cross. Among other feats, he saves the life of the self-exiled Amirald, the father of Eva. Soon after, the crusaders are beaten by the infidels, Raymond is taken prisoner, and becomes the inmate of a Moorish dungeon. He is released by a muffled figure, which proves to be a little Christian in a Moorish vest, who tells him a very pretty story, accompanies him to a place of safety, and finally dies of love for him.

He now returns to his native land, but finding that Eva, with whom he has become very anxious to "kiss and make up," has gone to Thoulouse to place the prize of the golden violet on the brow of the minstrel who shall excel in the approaching trial of musical skill, he repairs thither also. He arrives in time to witness the long neglected exhibition, assumes the dress of a Troubadour, and wins the prize. His form and face are effectually disguised by a green mantle and shadowy plumes. But according to the rules of chivalry (vide Ivanhoe, second day at Ashby de la Zouche), the victor must be unveiled. His plumes are thrown aside, Eva recognises him, and falls fainting into his arms,—a consummation worth a dozen golden violets. Such is the story.

The Poetical Sketches of Modern Pictures are very good, particularly that of Howard's Picture of Fairies upon the Sea-Shore, and so would be that of Juliet after the Masquerade, if it were not for a thought or two taken from Corinna, and spoiled in the version.

The Sketches from History have been so much copied into the newspapers, that our readers are probably as well acquainted with them as we are. The Sultana's Remonstrance and the Record pleased us most.

An Oration, pronounced before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Dartmouth College, August 25, 1825. By CHARLES B. HADDUCK. Published by request. Concord. 1825. 8vo. pp. 35.

PROFESSOR HADDUCK asked the attention of the literary society, before whom this oration was delivered, to the following subject: "The present condition and character of England, as peculiarly entitled in comparison with all the former periods of her history, to the consideration of our young men; of those, especially, who are hoping to bear a part in the future counsels and transactions of their country." Among the grounds for the peculiar claims of England on our attention, Professor Hadduck enumerates, the proximity of that nation to our own, rendered greater in the present age by the modern improvements in navigation; the sympathy between us growing out of the consciousness of our common origin, the facilities for an intimate intercourse arising from a community of language; the similarity between the principal institutions of England, her law, her religion, her modes of education, and those of our own country; and, more than all, "a common property in the inheritance of her great national recollections."

These circumstances says the orator, all constitute so remarkable a difference between our relation to England, and the relation of any other nations, which have communicated with each other, as to render it unquestionable, that the English mind must exert over us an influence, which no people of the Eastern world has yet exerted over another, surpassed only by the influence which she, herself, in common with the rest of Europe, is receiving from us. London is almost as much a centre of intellectual and moral influence to the people of these States, as to England herself. The efforts of her ever active intellects are as certainly, and almost as soon felt, here, as upon the shores of the Irish Sea, or the German Ocean. While the productions of her presses are winding their way over the mountains of Wales and North Britain, they are traversing, also, our great canals and lakes of the west. The leaves of a London Review are scarcely dry, before it is advertised in every important town in America. A distinguished speaker has but just sat down in the Parliament House, when his voice is echoed from the banks of the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains.

Without any desire to lessen the claims of England on the attention of our young men, we remark, what our readers must perceive, that some of the grounds here stated are not peculiar to "this age," and that others are common to all countries. We could select many passages from this oration, distinguished alike for their eloquence and for the important facts and sound reflections which they contain; but we have room only for the following happy illustration of the progress of improvement, which characterises the present age.

No longer ago than the middle of the last century, it was a rare event for speeches in Parliament to be published. It was not permitted the

clerks to report them. That singular and wonderful monument of Johnson's genius, the Parliamentary Debates, owes its existence entirely to the danger of gratifying the publick demand for the discussions upon the removal of Sir Robert Walpole from the Ministry. At this day, the debates and resolutions of Parliament are studied and commented on from one end of the kingdom to the other. There have, consequently, been more true and profound views expressed, on every subject, which has come before Parliament for the last twenty-five years, than can, probably, be found in all the treatises, which the nation had before produced. Her real progress, the causes and consequences of her revolutions, the tendency of her successive systems of policy, the sources of her calamities, and of her prosperity and power, may be better learned from the publications of the last quarter of a century, than from the speculations of preceding ages. What English statesman would not now blush to acknowledge, as Fox did, that he had not read Adam Smith's Theory of the Wealth of Nations, "because it was a subject, which he could never understand, and he did not believe, that any body else understood it?" There was, indeed, but one man of his time, who did understand it. To that man, nothing seems to have been unknown. Like Cicero, whom he more nearly resembled, than any other individual of ancient or modern times, himself a philosopher, without embracing any one of the systems of preceding philosophers, without being able, perhaps, to follow the profoundest of them into their sublime depths, he yet saw farther than man ever saw before, into the real nature and constitution of society, and apprehended more perfectly the relation of all human interests and institutions to each other, and to the great ends of society. To him England is more indebted than to any statesman of the last age. He gave to our infant cause the enthusiasm of his youth, and the vigour of his manhood; to his own country, not the support of unadvised and ruinous measures, but the first example in her annals of a beautiful system of political philosophy, established upon the foundations of fact and experience. His theory of human government, like his Reflections on the French Revolution, seems to have been a prophetic vision of history. The works of Edmund Burke, with all their splendid sophistry on the rights of the Crown, the "historical basis" of the Monarchy, are in their great political and economical principles, liberal and free, and have done more than almost any thing else, to enlarge and elevate the minds of the present generation of English politicians.

In the popular complaints of the loose and superficial form of the literature of this age, it is not always considered, that the forms, assumed by the productions of intellect, are uncertain indications of its character. The mode of giving expression to the thoughts of men, conforms itself to the period of their progress. The art of printing always adapts itself to the art of reading. The folio of the seventeenth century did well enough for the use of the few in England, who, at that time, thought of reading any thing. But it would not become a modern Parlour Library, nor be conveniently carried in the mail to every cottage in the kingdom. The Octavo, Duodecimo, Pamphlet, and Periodical, of our time, are exactly adapted to the universal and periodical demand of the public on its men of genius. They have not sunk to the level of the community. The community have almost overtaken them. The power of genius is not restrained; it has only adapted its vehicle to the regions it has to traverse.

1. Governor Lincoln's Message to the Legislature of Massachusetts, at their Winter Session, 1826.

2. Governor Clinton's Message to the Legislature of New York, at their Winter Session, 1826.

Deeming the subject of education one of the highest concernment to every class of our fellow-citizens, we have frequently brought it before our readers; sometimes by offering them descriptions of the most successful schools in Europe as well as in our own country; sometimes by citing the opinions and reflections of distinguished and experienced gentlemen in their private capacity; and sometimes by striving to fix the public attention on those points which seem to us to require the first attention, and to be preliminary in their nature to the development of a more perfect and energetic system of public instruction. We are happy to see the subject brought so distinctly before the Legislatures of Massachusetts and New York, at their present session, by the executive authorities of these states. Both these documents distinctly allude to the establishment of seminaries for the preparation of teachers. Governor Clinton, in a very decided manner, and at considerable length, urges the Legislature of New York to the consideration of the necessity of raising the character and qualifications of instructers, as essential to the healthy and vigorous operation of their system of free schools; and as the only practicable means of doing this, he recommends the establishment of a seminary for the preparation of teachers.

"The vocation of a teacher," says he, in the Message above cited, "in its influence on the character and destinies of the rising and all future generations, has either not been fully understood, or not duly estimated. It is, or ought to be ranked among the learned professions. With a full admission of the merits of several who now officiate in that capacity, still it must be conceded that the information of many of the instructers of our common schools, does not extend beyond rudimental education—that our expanding population requires constant accessions to their numbers; and to realize these views it is necessary that some new plan for obtaining able teachers should be devised. I therefore recommend a seminary for the education of teachers in the monitorial system of instruction, and all those useful branches of knowledge which are proper to engraft on elementary attainments. A compliance with this recommendation will have the most benign influence on individual happiness and social prosperity. To break down the barriers which poverty has erected against the acquisition and dispensation of knowledge, is to restore the just equilibrium of society, and to perform a duty of indispensable and paramount obligation: and under this impression I also recommend that provision be made for the gratuitous education, in our superior seminaries, of indigent, talented, and meritorious youth."

INTELLIGENCE.

THE COMET OF 1825.

[Communicated by W. Colburn.]

The follo wing elements were calculated from observations made at Chelmsford. During a considerable part of the time of the comet's appearance it was impossible to make observations with our instruments on account of the moon; and it was also so cloudy that only four observations were obtained. These were taken with a sextant, and cannot therefore be very perfect at best; and in this case the difficulties were increased by the nucleus of the comet, being not very well defined. These observations moreover will not give the orbit with quite so much precision as if they had been made at greater intervals.

The observations reduced are as follows—

Time of observation	Lat.	Lon.
October 5.4615 days.	28° 55′ 09″ South	27° 23′ 16″
" 6.4282 "	30 07 24 "	24 25 56
" 7.4282 "	31 19 28 "	21 14 16
" 16.4373 "	37 23 26 "	348 4 10

The elements are as follows—

Time of passing its perihelion, in mean astronomical time at Boston.	Dec. 7.4214 days.
Perihelion dist. (the mean dist. of the earth being 1)	" 1.2818 "
Logarithm - - - - - - - -	" 0.1078206
Longitude of the perihelion in the orbit	322° 33′ 18″
Do of the ascending node	215° 29′ 18″
Inclination of the orbit to the ecliptic	33° 51′ 54″
Motion retrograde.	

The geocentric places at the times of observation calculated from these elements do not differ from the observed places, in latitude or longitude, more than 1′, except in a single instance, and in that the difference is but 1′$\frac{2}{3}$. This is as near as we could expect them to agree from observations liable to such imperfections.

It is probable that considerable difference will be found between some of these elements, and those calculated from better or worse observations. For a slight difference in the observations will alter the time of passage two or three days, and the place of the perihelion several degrees. The perihelion distance will also be considerably affected by the same cause. It appears, on looking over Delambre's tables, that there generally exists considerable discrepancy in these three elements calculated by different astronomers, when the perihelion distance is so great as this. This must be considered a new comet to be added to the list, as its elements differ essentially from all hitherto calculated.

ARMY OF THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

In its present state, this empire is a very considerable barrier between the British and the Chinese governments, being too weak to offer serious

molestation to a powerful neighbour, and too inhospitable to afford temptation to an invading army. The only standing army consists of a few undisciplined native christians and renegadoes from other countries, who act as artillery; a very small body of cavalry, and about 2000 miserable infantry. The armies are composed of levies raised on the spur of the occasion by the princes and lords who hold their lands on this condition. They never exceed 60,000 men. The family of each soldier are responsible for his good behaviour, and are all put to death when he proves guilty of cowardice or desertion. The infantry are armed with muskets and sabres; the cavalry, who are all natives of Cassery, carry spears seven or eight feet long. The most respectable part of the Birman military force consists of the war-boats, which are furnished and manned by the different towns in the vicinity of the river, in numbers proportioned to their sizes. Formerly the king could on a short notice command 500 of these boats. They carry forty or fifty rowers, each armed with a sword or lance, about thirty soldiers armed with muskets, and a piece of ordnance on the prow. They make an impetuous attack, and use grapples for boarding; but lying deep in the water, they are easily run down and sunk by the impulse of a vessel of a larger size. *Malte Brun.*

SINGULAR POINTS OF ETIQUETTE.

Among the points of etiquette which prevail at the court of the princes of Morocco are the following. The word *death* is never uttered in presence of the Sultan. When it is unavoidable to mention to his sovereign the death of any person, it is expressed by such words as, "He has fulfilled his destiny;" on which the monarch gravely remarks, "God be merciful to him." Another point of whimsical superstition is, that the numbers *five* and *fifteen* must not be mentioned in the presence of the prince. *Ib.*

VARIETIES.

Society Islands.—A sugar manufactory has been established at Otaheite, where sugar is made from native cane; and a building designed for a cotton manufactory has been erected in Eimeo; the machinery for spining and weaving has been imported from England, and is to be put in motion by water power. Cotton grows spontaneously in great abundance.

Technological Institution at Moscow.—The Emperor has sanctioned the project of a Technological Institution at Moscow, for the propagation of the arts relative to manufactures. Youths of *free condition* may be admitted from sixteen to twenty-one years of age, and their instruction is afforded gratis.

Ruins of Pompeii.—There have lately been discovered at Pompeii the remains of several most elegant baths, consisting of entire vaults variously decorated, together with a bath of white marble capable of containing twenty individuals. In a chamber contiguous there were also discovered two *bronze sophas*, and a large vase of the same metal. No less than five hundred lamps of different forms have also lately been dug up from the ruins.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS, SCIENCES, AND PHILOSOPHY.

A Review of the Philosophy of the Human Mind, by Thomas Brown, M. D. Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh, by the Rev. Frederick Beasly, D. D. Provost of the University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia. William Stavely.

EDUCATION.

The Rudiments of English Grammar, illustrated by Parsing Lessons; containing also a Table of Questions, on the Parts of Speech, arranged in systematic order, designed to facilitate the pupil's progress, and initiate him in the principles of Etymology; together with Twenty-Four Syntactical Rules, Ellipses, and a few Observations on the Uses of *What* and *Its*. By Charles Spalding, Teacher of English Grammar. 1825. 8vo. pp. 36. Onondago.

The American Instructer, calculated to succeed the English, and other spelling books; containing a Selection of the principal part of the Words in common use, divided, accented, defined, and their pronunciation accurately pointed out, adapted to the orthography and pronunciation of Walker. Interspersed with instructive and entertaining reading Lessons; to which is added, a comprehensive Abridgment of English Grammar. By Rensselaer Bentley, author of the English Spelling Book. 12mo. pp. 240. Troy. E. Platt & Co.

HISTORY.

Notes to His Sketches of Bunker-Hill Battle. By S. Swett. 8vo. pp. 24. Boston. Munroe & Francis.

A History of Boston, the Metropolis of Massachusetts; from its Origin to the Present Period. With some Account of the Environs. By Caleb H. Snow, M. D. Embellished with Engravings. 8vo. pp. 400. Boston. 1825. A. Bowen.

This volume was originally published in separate numbers. It contains a mass of facts relating to the early and subsequent history of the city down to the present time, highly creditable to the industry of the author. As a chronicle for reference, it must always be valuable, but as a volume of history it would have been much more valuable, if the author had given himself time to collect all his materials, and survey the whole ground of his work, before he put any part of it to the press.

LAW.

An Essay on the Doctrine of Contracts; being an Inquiry how Contracts are affected in Law and Morals, by Concealment, Error, or Inadequate Price. By Gulian C. Verplanck. 8vo. pp. 234. New York. 1825. G. & C. Carvill.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Facts and Arguments in favour of adopting Railways in preference to Canals, in the State of Pennsylvania. To which are added, a few Remarks on the subject of Internal Improvements. Fourth Edition. 1825. 8vo. pp. 68. Philadelphia.

A Brief Essay towards an Apology for a Play Actor. By Euripides. Albany, N. Y.

A Discourse, delivered in Charleston, S. C. on the 21st of November, 1825, before the Reformed Society of Israelites, for promoting true Principles of Judaism, according to its Purity and Spirit, on their first Anniversary. By Isaac Harly, a Member. 8vo. pp. 40. Charleston. A. E. Miller.

An Address, delivered before the American Academy of the Fine Arts, November 17, 1825. By Richard Ray, a Member of the Academy. 4to. pp 48. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

The Massachusetts Register and United States Calendar. 18mo. Boston. James Loring.

A Lecture Introductory to the Course of Hebrew Instruction in the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, delivered in Christ's Church, New York, on the Evening of November 14th, 1825. By Clement C. Moore, A. M. Professor of Oriental and Greek Literature. 8vo. pp. 28. New York. T. & J. Swords.

An Examination of the New System of Society, by Robert Owen; showing its Insufficiency to reform Mankind; with Observations on the Operation of the Principles of Virtue in the Mind of Man. 8vo. Philadelphia. John Mortimer.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Supplement to the American Ornithology of Alexander Wilson. Containing a Sketch of the Author's Life, with a Selection from his Letters; some Remarks upon his Writings; and a History of those Birds which were intended to compose part of his Ninth Volume. Illustrated with Plates, Engraved from Wilson's Original Drawings. By George Ord, F. L. S., Member of the Am. Philosophical Society, &c. &c. Royal 4to. pp. 298. Philadelphia. J. Laval and S. F. Bradford.

THEOLOGY.

A Sermon delivered in Ipswich, South Parish. By Joseph Dana, on Lord's Day, Nov. 6, 1825. Being the Day which completed the Sixtieth year of his Ministry in that place. 8vo. 20. Salem. W. Palfray, Jun.

Rev. Abner Kneeland's Reply to a Pamphlet, entitled: "Remarks on the distinguishing Doctrine of Modern Universalim, which teaches that there is no Hell, and no Punishment for the Wicked after Death. By Adam Empie, A. M. Rector of St. James' Church, Wilmington, N. C." 8vo. Philadelphia.

A Sermon on Theatrical Exhibitions. By the Rev. Mr. Atkins. 8vo. Price 25 cts. Utica, N. Y. Merrill & Hastings.

Daily Devotions for a Family, with Occasional Prayers. 12mo. pp. 163. New York. Clayton & Van Norden.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. III. FEBRUARY 1, 1826. No. 9.

REVIEWS.

A Treatise on Christian Doctrine, compiled from the Holy Scriptures alone; by JOHN MILTON. Translated from the Original by CHARLES R. SUMNER, M. A. Librarian and Historiographer to His Majesty, and Prebendary of Canterbury. 2 Vols. Boston. 1825. 8vo. pp. 448 and 464.

As we sometime ago announced the discovery of a Latin manuscript which proved to be the long lost treatise of John Milton on the doctrines of Christianity, and as the translation of this work has been republished here, it may be expected of us to present our readers with some account of so unexpected an addition to our stock of books. That Cicero and Milton, the first names of Roman and English letters, should be publishing new works in the nineteenth century, is a phenomenon indeed; and we should be singularly destitute of curiosity, as well as of a proper respect for great minds, if we were not anxious to know what they are uttering to the world in this resurrection of their works. This is the state of feeling which we propose to meet in our notice of the English poet's work. But we fear, that those who may read our brief abstract, will cease to feel any further curiosity about it, and that the highest respect for the mighty man who wrote it, will not prevent it from becoming, in a short time, but little more known than it has been during the century past. So long, however, as it shall be kept from returning to the tomb of oblivion, the time is to be accounted as Milton's holiday, in which the world is to do homage to his memory, and celebrate his genius and worth. We would that we were

capable of pronouncing over him a glowing panegyric, and commemorating him in strains equal to our admiration, and not second to the splendid eulogium, which, with a kind of literary and political idolatry, has been poured out from the Edinburgh Review. But for such a work, we have neither talents, time, nor room; and must be content with humbly announcing the summary of the doctrines, which that gifted and independent mind drew from the volume which he venerated as the fountain of all wisdom.

The work is divided into two books; the first, *Of Faith, or the Knowledge of God;* the second, *Of Love, or the Service of God.*

The mode in which the several topics are treated which come under these two divisions, is by the citation of those texts from all parts of the Bible, which relate to the subject in hand,—mingled with such remarks in the way of illustration, or inference, or argument, as may serve clearly to exhibit the doctrine which they contain. The work becomes in this way very little else, upon most subjects, than a huge collection of texts, arranged, or rather thrown together, beneath the heads to which they belong. The purpose which each is to serve, it is very frequently left for the reader himself to determine, as both note and comment may be wanting. There is not a great deal of attempt at criticism of the texts, and they are oftentimes adduced for purposes, which, we presume, the prevalent principles of interpretation at the present time would pronounce unwarrantable. Upon those doctrines, however, concerning which disputes have arisen, and he must maintain one side of a controverted question,—especially those on which he adopts an opinion opposite to the established sentiment,—he enters into larger explanations, argues, criticises, interprets, and with great force and ingenuity removes the objections which lie against him, and supports the positions which he has assumed.

In collecting the testimony of the Scriptures to the character of God, the most remarkable result at which he arrives is derived from a literal understanding of those passages which attribute human passions and parts to the Deity, which, he says, are to be understood "without having recourse to what theologians call anthropopathy."

If "it repented Jehovah that he had made man," *Gen.* vi. 6. and "because of their groanings," *Judges* ii. 18. let us believe that it did repent him, only taking care to remember that what is called repentance when applied to God, does not arise from inadvertency, as in men; for so he has himself cautioned us, *Num.*

xxiii. 19. "God is not a man that he should lie, neither the son of man that he should repent." See also 1 *Sam.* xv. 29. Again, if "it grieved the Lord at his heart," *Gen.* vi. 6. and if "his soul were grieved for the misery of Israel," *Judges* x. 16. let us believe that it did grieve him. For the affections which in a good man are good, and rank with virtues, in God are holy. If after the work of six days it be said of God that "he rested and was refreshed," *Exod.* xxxi. 17. If it be said that "he feared the wrath of the enemy," *Deut.* xxxii. 27. let us believe that it is not beneath the dignity of God to grieve in that for which he is grieved, or to be refreshed in that which refresheth him, or to fear in that he feareth. For however we may attempt to soften down such expressions by a latitude of interpretation, when applied to the Deity, it comes in the end to precisely the same. If God be said "to have made man in his own image, after his likeness," *Gen.* i. 26. and that too not only as to his soul, but also as to his outward form (unless the same words have different significations here and in chap. v. 3. "Adam begat a son in his own likeness, after his image") and if God habitually assign to himself the members and form of man, why should we be afraid of attributing to him what he attributes to himself, so long as what is imperfection and weakness when viewed in reference to ourselves be considered as most complete and excellent whenever it is imputed to God. Questionless the glory and majesty of the Deity must have been so dear to him, that he would never say anything of himself which could be humiliating or degrading, and would ascribe to himself no personal attribute which he would not willingly have ascribed to him by his creatures.

Upon the knotty subject of the *Divine Decrees*, he insists on the freedom of the will, uncontrolled and unaffected by the prescience of the Deity.

The subject of *Predestination* he argues at length. His view of this subject was different from that of the orthodox creed of his day; as he insists that it does not include reprobation,—"a thing in itself ungrateful and odious;" nor even election, except conditionally; so "that there is no particular predestination or election, but only general; *e. g.* Peter is not elected as Peter, or John as John, but inasmuch as they are believers, and continue in their belief." And in regard to the work of the Saviour, he made satisfaction for all sinners, not for the elect alone; having respect to the elect, "only in so far as they were sinners."

The fifth chapter relates to *the Son of God;* and it is the opinions advanced in this chapter respecting the equality of the Son with the Father, which has excited the greatest attention to

the book. He has with great decision, and at great length, laboured to disprove the doctrine of the Trinity, and stands forth as a Unitarian of the Arian school.

In regard to the third person of the Trinity, the Holy Spirit, he maintains an opinion, which, we suppose, is not common among those who give up the divine nature of the second person, viz. that it is a *person*,—not, however, divine, not God himself, but "a minister of God, a creature, created or produced of the substance of God,—probably before the foundations of the world were laid, but later than the Son, and inferior to him." Accordingly we should imagine he might be called God's second Son. This we believe to be a very different opinion from that of the Unitarians in general, who, if we mistake not, account the Holy Spirit to be divine, but not a person, while Milton describes it as a person, but not divine.

The Son and the Spirit, according to our author, were the agents of the Almighty in the creation of the world,—a creation, not out of nothing, but of matter previously existing,—existing, not from eternity, but formed "of God;" "an efflux," an "emanation" from the Deity. From which it follows, "that no created thing can be annihilated."

Another opinion of Milton, here developed, is, that man is a single, uncompounded being, "not, according to the common opinion, made up and framed of two distinct and different natures, as of soul and body,—but that the whole man is soul, and the soul man; that is to say, a body or substance individual, animated, sensitive, and rational." "That the spirit of man should be separate from the body, so as to have a perfect and intelligent existence independently of it, is nowhere said in Scripture, and the doctrine is evidently at variance both with nature and reason." Agreeably to which he argues, that death is the destruction of the whole man, soul as well as body; that is, his annihilation. Death, he says, is the punishment of sin, which all undergo, because all sinned in Adam; now the whole man sinned, not part of the man; the whole man, therefore, not part, must be punished. It would be absurd to suppose, that the mind, "which is the part principally offending," should escape the threatened death, and the body suffer it, "though not implicated in the transgression." Hence there is no natural immortality of the soul, but it is, in the strictest sense, the gift of God by Jesus Christ.

The tenet commonly called the *Perseverance of the Saints*, which maintains that a truly regenerate person can never fall

from grace, he asserts to be without foundation, since the Christian's steadfastness depends on his use of the grace given him. He may abuse it; and if he do, he breaks the condition of the covenant on his part, and is suffered to fall.

The Jewish law he holds to have been utterly abolished; and that "we are absolved from subjection to the decalogue as fully as to the rest of the law." Not that we are not to observe the same moral duties, but their being contained in the law is no reason for observing them. The purpose of the law is fulfilled in that love of God and our neighbour, which the Gospel enjoins, and "there is no transgression in disregarding the letter of the law, provided, that, under the direction of the Spirit, the end of the institution be attained in the love of God and our neighbour."

Concerning the rites of the Christian religion, he maintains that baptism is to be administered only to adults, and only by immersion; and that the Lord's supper (which the doctrine of transubstantiation, "or rather anthropophagy," as he says, "has well nigh converted into a banquet of cannibals") is not essential to be observed, and may be administered by any one with propriety as well as by an appointed minister. There is "no order of men which can claim to itself either the right of distributing or the power of withholding the sacred elements, seeing that in Christ we are all alike priests." "The master of a family, or any one appointed by him, is at liberty to celebrate the Lord's supper from house to house, as was done in the dispensation of the passover."

In these last quotations is apparent his opinion of the authority and functions of the ministry, upon which he elsewhere enlarges, and which helps to explain the surprising circumstance, that in the latter part of his life, he neither attended public worship, nor maintained devotions in his family. This seems, at first view, unaccountable in a man of his religious spirit and habitual devoutness, and has taxed the ingenuity of his biographers to explain. It has generally been, as it should be, spoken of with caution and tenderness; "for it is certain," says Hawkins, "that his daily employments were always ushered in by devout meditation and study of the Scriptures," and, as Newton expresses it, "he was full of the interior of religion, though he so little regarded the exterior." Besides all the reasons which have been assigned for it, and which deserve great consideration on account of the distracted character of the times, his views of the nature and object of the ministry may be assigned as a still further explanation of his conduct. He contended "for that sort of individual

or personal religion, by which every man is to be his own priest." He rested on the literal language of the Apostle, that all Christians are "a royal and holy priesthood." "Any believer," he says, "is competent to act as an ordinary minister according as convenience may require, provided only he be endowed with the necessary gifts; these gifts constituting his commission." And, agreeably to this, he declares his opinion, that

Sometimes it means an angel. *Isai.* xlviii. 16. "the Lord Jehovah and his Spirit hath sent me." *Ezek.* iii. 12. "then the Spirit took me up." See also v. 14, 24, &c.

Upon the subject of the Sabbath, he advocates the opinion, that it is an institution, not established from the time of the creation, but taking its date from the promulgation of the law on Sinai.

His opinions respecting marriage and divorce are known to have been adverse to those of the christian world; he argues at length, from the example and authority of Scripture, in favour of a multiplicity of wives, "which is prohibited to no one, even under the Gospel;" and against the doctrine, that marriage is indissoluble; maintaining, that, as the prime end of the institution is "good will, love, help, comfort, and fidelity," it is to be preserved only while these are unshaken; if these depart, and cease to exist, "it follows that the marriage itself is virtually dissolved."

What it is that God has joined together, the institution of marriage itself declares. God has joined only what admits of union, what is suitable, what is good, what is honourable;* he has not made provision for unnatural and monstrous associations, pregnant only with dishonour, with misery, with hatred, and with calamity. It is not God who forms such unions, but violence, or rashness, or error, or the influence of some evil genius. Why then should it be unlawful to deliver ourselves from so pressing an intestine evil?

We are astonished with perfect amazement, at finding sentiments so hostile to the truest interests of man thus advocated by such a writer. Yet we have no doubt that into these he was betrayed,—in part at least,—by the literal system of interpretation which he adopted. He construed the sacred word too

* But here the Christian prudence lies, to consider what God hath joined: shall we say that God hath joined error, fraud, unfitness, wrath, contention, perpetual loneliness, perpetual discord; whatever lust, or wine, or witchery, threat or enticement, avarice or ambition hath joined together, faithful and unfaithful, christian with anti-christian, hate with hate, or hate with love, shall we say this is God's joining?"
Tetrachordon, Prose Works, II. 178.

much according to the letter, and not enough according to the spirit; and, for want of those enlarged and generous principles of construction, in the light of which we unveil the ancient records, his extreme veneration for them led him into errors, by confining him within the strictest and narrowest limits of the obvious sense. Whatever other circumstances may have biassed his judgment on these points, we have no doubt that any one who will study the mode in which he states his views throughout these volumes, will assent to the opinion we have just expressed. It accounts most satisfactorily for the singularity of many of his opinions.

That part of the work which treats of the moral duties, consists of a full enumeration of the virtues and vices, carefully classified and defined. It is not of a character to be analysed here, and presents no very prominent topic of remark.

We have thus attempted to give a hasty survey of the most observable matters in this publication. It is not necessary to add, that in founding his opinions exclusively on the Scriptures, searched by himself for that purpose, and interpreted by such light as he possessed, and under such influences as he was subjected to, he has framed a system, which, in all its parts, probably agrees with no other that was ever before presented to the world, and to which, in all its parts, no other individual will ever assent. He has made a work which will often be referred to with interest, as containing the reasonings and results of a most powerful, independent, and devout mind, operating under many most unfavourable circumstances. He presents another of those examples, which ought to teach effectually the great lesson of candour and charity, by showing the unavoidable infirmities of the human mind, and the utter impossibility of attaining to an honest uniformity of faith, and absolute agreement in the interpretation of Scripture. He will still be known and honoured as one of the first and most admirable of men,—as a statesman, poet, christian. And, as in past time, his fame and influence have been those, not of the vigorous and eloquent secretary, but of the poor and blind poet; so still, in time to come, he is to live in the memory and souls of the human race, not as the laborious compiler of a system of christian doctrines, but the sublime and harmonious author of Paradise Lost.

Poems, by EDWARD C. PINKNEY. Baltimore. 1825. 18mo. pp. 76.

THERE is an anecdote told of a Spanish author, of Lope de Vega, we believe, that a friend came to him one day, and complained that he could not understand one of his sonnets, and requested an explanation of it. The author read it carefully, and returned it, with the frank confession, that he could not himself tell what it meant. We do not know that Mr Pinkney would be willing to confess so much; but we have carefully read his book several times over, and borne with patience more than one severe headach, which the efforts to comprehend his meaning have cost us, but still the greater number of his lines remain to us a mystery. We laboured the more, because we did admire many lines whose meaning was obvious; so many, indeed, that had we met with any one poem composed of an equal number of such lines, we should have promptly pronounced the author one of high poetical promise. Having given up, in despair, the task of discovering his meaning, we next set ourselves to find out, if we could, the reason of his general obscurity; but here again we were baffled. We will own, that at first, we admitted the uncharitable surmise, that Mr Pinkney was an imitator of Byron, and had caught his obscurity of language, without having his vigour of conception; but upon comparing these poems with those of Byron's which we suspected might be their prototypes, we found, that, though Byron was indeed occasionally obscure, his darkest passages were lucid in comparison with those of his supposed imitator. At length our attention fell upon four lines in one of these poems, which furnished the most probable solution of the difficulty.

> The mind is capable to show
> Thoughts of so dim a feature,
> That consciousness can only know
> *Their presence, not their nature.*

Mr Pinkney has put such thoughts as these into rhyme, and no wonder, if the author does not himself know their nature, that his readers should be at fault. Almost all the poems in this volume are of this kind. Now a man must be possessed of very strong powers who can hope, with any prospect of success, to interest the public by detailing in verse the workings of his own mind upon itself. The great poets have generally gone out of

themselves for subjects;—have, if we may use the expression, infused their souls into other objects, animate or inanimate, and returned fraught with their essence; as a bee gathers honey from flowers, they have converted into their nature what they had thus acquired, and then poured it forth as their own. Byron is almost the only poet of any note who has written much from his own musings on his own proper nature; and we believe that when all interest has ceased in him as a living individual, those parts of his writings will be the least popular. Every man, however dull, has some thoughts, if they may not rather be called "moods of mind," which are peculiar to himself alone, and which are for that very reason incommunicable; there is no language in which to utter them, and if by forced analogies, any one could succeed in giving to others an idea of them, it must always be a misty and doubtful idea, and none could be interested to receive it, besides those who were interested in the individual who attempted to embody it. This is, we believe, the great difficulty in Mr Pinkney's poems; they are not imitations of Byron, but their author has done ill what Byron has not done well; he has attempted to give to others an idea of his own peculiar feelings, and he has not, like Byron, selected those which most resemble the feelings common to all men. Nor is this the whole difficulty; either from the nature of the subject on which he has chosen to write, or from want of practice in rhythmical composition, Mr Pinkney has used so many inversions of language as would tend somewhat to confuse the plainest subject. We suspect, that the former is the true cause, because in his descriptions of natural scenery the inversions are far less numerous.

The following extract will give our readers some notion of the faults which we have mentioned.

> By woods and groves the oracles
> Of the old age were nursed;
> To Brutus came in solitude
> The spectral warning first,
> When murdered Cæsar's mighty shade
> The sanguine homicide dismayed,
> And fantasy rehearsed
> The ides of March, and, not in vain,
> Showed forth Philippi's penal plain.
>
> In loneliness I heard my hopes
> Pronounce, "Let us depart!"
> And saw my mind—a Marius—
> Desponding o'er my heart:

The evil genius, long concealed,
To thought's keen eye itself revealed,
  Unfolding like a chart,—
But rolled away, and left me free
As Stoics once aspired to be.

It brought, thou spirit of my breast,
  And Naiad of the tears,
Which have been welling coldly there,
  Although unshed, for years!
It brought, in kindness, or in hate,
The final menaces of fate,
  But prompted no base fears—
Ah, could I with ill feelings see
Aught, love, so near allied to thee?

The drowsy harbinger of death,
  That slumbered dull and deep,
Is welcome, and I would not wake
  Till thou dost join my sleep.
Life's conscious calm,—the flapping sail,—
The stagnant sea nor tide nor gale
  In pleasing motion keep,—
Oppress me; and I wish release
From this to more substantial peace.

Star of that sea!—the cynosure
  Of magnet-passions, long!—
A ceaseless apparition, and
  A very ocular song!—
My skies have changed their hemisphere,
And forfeited thy radiant cheer:
  Thy shadow still is strong;
And, beaming darkness, follows me,
Far duskier than obsurity.

To what straits is the author here evidently put, to portray his feelings; what can we, what can any reader, what can the author himself understand, by representing a man beholding his own mind desponding over his own heart? and what possible aid towards understanding this is to be derived from comparing this mind to Marius among the ruins of Carthage? Then, again, what was the concealed "evil genius?" and what more do we know of him and his properties from his unfolding like a chart? then, in the last quoted stanza, what are we to make of "*beaming* darkness?" Surely such writing as this can add nothing to the stock

of poetical ideas. We may give a faint guess,—but after all it can be nothing but a guess,—that the "spirit of the breast and Naiad of the tears" is some lost object of the writer's affection; but the affection of common men or women would not be so expressed. On the contrary, it is the nature of the human mind to brood over external objects connected or associated with scenes of past joys, to recall the outward semblance of that which was loved; not to dwell upon the emotions which were excited in the mind itself by the joy of the presence, or grief for the absence of that which was loved. The state of mind, therefore, which we suppose the author here meant to describe, is unnatural, and being so, the description could not be pleasing, if it could be understood. In endeavouring to make himself more intelligible, Mr Pinkney uses many images and comparisons, few of which tend to elucidate his meaning; but they are poured forth with wonderful profusion, and seem to have cost him no little labour to collect.

> How feels the guiltless dreamer, who
> With idly curious gaze
> Has let his mind's glance wander through
> The relics of past days?—
> As feels the pilgrim that has scanned,
> Within their skirting wall,
> The moon-lit marbles of some grand
> Disburied capital;
> Masses of whiteness and of gloom,
> The darkly bright remains
> Of desolate palace, empty tomb,
> And desecrated fanes:—
> For in the ruins of old hours,
> Remembrance haply sees
> Temples, and tombs, and palaces,
> Not different from these.

Now we have heard of tracing out such images among the expiring embers of a coal-fire; but we cannot conceive any the better of a man's past feelings because he says they resemble ancient ruins.

> Perhaps, presentiment of ill
> Might shake him—hearts are prophets still.
> What though the fount of Castaly
> Not now stains leaves with prophecy?—
> What though are of another age
> Omens, and Sibyl's boding page?—

Augurs and oracles resign
Their voices—fear can still divine:
Dreams and hand-writings on the wall
Need not foretell our fortune's fall;
Domitian in his galleries,
The soul all hostile advents sees,
As in the mirror-stone;
Like shadows by a brilliant day
Cast down from falcons on their prey;
Or watery demons, in strong light,
By haunted waves of fountains old,
Shown indistinctly to the sight
Of the inquisitive and bold.

Here is an instance of the conglomeration of comparisons which we mentioned above, and perhaps the most successful in the volume; but they tend to confuse the reader from their very multitude; and the mood of mind *here* described is so common as not to need illustration;—all have felt depression of spirits, and the superstition that it presages evil is a very common one. We do not mean, however, to deny that some of these images are very beautiful, and we believe they are all original; but one of them alone would have been sufficient to give beauty and spirit to the whole subject. The simile of the falcon's shadow is such as could have occurred only to a genuine poet.

Mr Pinkney appears to have read Wordsworth, and we would recommend him to study this great poet's style, and observe how much effect is added even to the harmony of his lines as well as to the force of his expression, by the order in which he arranges his words, how rarely he uses any inversion of language, and how transparent he thus makes his meaning. Wordsworth, too, rarely inverts the order of nature; he does not often attempt to illustrate the workings of his mind by comparing them to outward objects; but he describes outward things, and tells us the train of thought which they excited, and this is the natural order.

We should not have bestowed so much time and pains upon Mr Pinkney's poems, if, amid all his mist and obscurity, we had not discovered gleams of unquestionable genius, not so much "words that breathe" as "thoughts that" might "burn," if they were not enveloped in smoke. As a general illustration of our meaning we would notice the difference between the last twelve lines of the last poem, and those which precede them. It is too long to be extracted here; but we would call the author's attention to it. The first part of the poem is a pretty clear and a

pleasing account of the thoughts excited by the removal of an old tree familiar to infancy, and the last twelve lines have, for aught we can see, no possible connexion with the preceding; but are a rhapsody exactly like the first of our extracts. The use which we would draw from this, is an encouragement to Mr Pinkney to write more in the style of the first part of the poem; to "look abroad through nature," and give us the result of such meditations, and their operations on his mind;—not the result of his solitary, self-observation. By pursuing this course,—as we understand he is still a young man,—we believe he will gain for himself no inconsiderable name among the Anglo-American poets, whose number we would gladly see increased; and to men of true genius,—and of them Mr Pinkney clearly is,—the field is ample, and promises a rich harvest of fame.

The Subaltern; or Sketches of the Peninsular War, during the Campaigns of 1813-14. By an Eyewitness. New York. 1825. 12mo. pp. 273.

This is a pleasant book, written in the same style as that of "Recollections of the Peninsula." It was originally published, a few chapters at a time, in Blackwood's Magazine, and has been drawn upon pretty largely by some newspapers in our own country. It details, with great minuteness, the experiences of a subaltern officer in the campaigns of 1813 and 1814, while the English, Spanish, and Portuguese armies, under Lord Wellington, were invading the south of France, and compelling the French, under Marshal Soult, to fall back from the Spanish frontier. It contains many vivid descriptions of the scenes common to all armies much engaged in hard fighting. Little events are sometimes narrated with a minuteness which leads us to suspect that the author must have drawn upon his imagination to finish his descriptions. Indeed, we are not quite certain that the whole work was not got up by some of the expert book-making gentry of Edinburgh—with the assistance of a few leading facts from an "Eyewitness." However this may be, it certainly will prove an agreeable book to those who are fond of light reading, though we must confess, that we began to grow weary of being so constantly delighted with the style before we arrived at the end of the volume.

The active operations of that part of the army under Lord Wellington, with which this "subaltern" was connected, began

with the assault on St Sebastian's. The following is a part of his description of that event:

The forlorn hope took its station at the mouth of the most advanced trench, about half-past ten o'clock. The tide, which had long turned, was now fast ebbing, and these gallant fellows beheld its departure with a degree of feverish anxiety, such as he only can imagine, who has stood in a similar situation. This was the first time that a town was stormed by daylight since the commencement of the war, and the storming party were enabled distinctly to perceive the preparations which were making for their reception. There was, therefore, something, not only interesting but novel, in beholding the muzzles of the enemy's cannon, from the castle and other batteries, turned in such a direction as to flank the breaches; whilst the glancing of bayonets, and the occasional rise of caps and feathers, gave notice of the line of infantry which was forming underneath the parapet. There an officer could, from time to time, be distinguished, leaning his telescope over the top of the rampart, or through the opening of an embrasure, prying with deep attention into our arrangements.

Nor were our own officers, particularly those of the engineers, idle. With the greatest coolness they exposed themselves to a dropping fire of musketry which the enemy at intervals kept up, whilst they examined and re-examined the state of the breaches—a procedure which cost the life of as brave and experienced a soldier as that distinguished corps has produced. I allude to Sir Richard Fletcher, chief engineer to the army, who was shot through the head only a few minutes before the column advanced to the assault.

It would be difficult to convey to the mind of an ordinary reader any thing like a correct notion of the state of feeling which takes possession of a man waiting for the commencement of a battle. In the first place, time appears to move upon leaden wings; every minute seems an hour, and every hour a day. Then there is a strange commingling of levity and seriousness within him—a levity which prompts him to laugh, he scarce knows why; and a seriousness which urges him ever and anon to lift up a mental prayer to the Throne of Grace. On such occasions, little or no conversation passes. The privates generally lean upon their firelocks—the officers upon their swords; and few words, except monosyllables, at least in answer to questions put, are wasted. On these occasions, too, the faces of the bravest often change colour, and the limbs of the most resolute tremble, not with fear, but with anxiety; whilst watches are consulted, till the individuals who consult them grow absolutely weary of the employment. On the whole, it is a situation of higher excitement, and darker and

deeper agitation, than any other in human life; nor can he be said to have felt all which man is capable of feeling who has not filled it.

Noon had barely passed, when the low state of the tide giving evidence that the river might be forded, the word was given to advance. Silent as the grave, the column moved forward. In one instant the leading files had cleared the trenches, and the others poured on in quick succession after them, when the work of death began. The enemy having reserved their fire till the head of the column had gained the middle of the stream, then opened with the most deadly effect. Grape, cannister, musketry, shells, granades, and every species of missile, were hurled from the ramparts, beneath which our gallant fellows dropped like corn before the reaper; insomuch, that in the space of two minutes, the river was literally choaked up with the bodies of the killed and wounded, over whom, without discrimination, the advancing divisions pressed on.

The opposite bank was soon gained, and the short space between the landing-place and the foot of the breach rapidly cleared, without a single shot having been returned by the assailants. But here the most alarming prospect awaited them. Instead of a wide and tolerably level chasm, the breach presented the appearance only of an ill-built wall, thrown considerably from its perpendicular; to ascend which, even though unopposed, would be no easy task. It was, however, too late to pause; besides, men's blood was hot, and their courage on fire; so they pressed on, clambering up as they best could, and effectually hindering one another from falling back, by the eagerness of the rear-ranks to follow those in front. Shouts and groans were now mingled with the roar of cannons and the rattle of musketry; our front-ranks likewise had an opportunity of occasionally firing with effect; and the slaughter on both sides was dreadful.

At length the head of the column forced its way to the summit of the breach; where it was met in the most gallant style by the bayonets of the garrison. When I say the summit of the breach, I mean not to assert that our soldiers stood upon a level with their enemies; for this was not the case. There was an high step, perhaps two or three feet in length, which the assailants must surmount before they could gain the same ground with the defenders, and a very considerable period elapsed ere that step was surmounted. Here bayonet met bayonet, and sabre met sabre, in close and desperate strife, without the one party being able to advance, or the other succeeding in driving them back.

Things had continued in this state for nearly a quarter of an hour, when Major Snodgrass, at the head of the 13th Portuguese regiment, dashed across the river by his own ford, and assaulted

the lesser breach. This attack was made in the most cool and determined manner; but here, too, the obstacles were almost insurmountable; nor is it probable that the place would have been carried at all, but for a measure adopted by General Graham, such as has never perhaps been adopted before. Perceiving that matters were almost desperate, he had recourse to a desperate remedy, and ordered our own artillery to fire upon the breach. Nothing could be more exact or beautiful than this practice. Though our men stood only about two feet below the breach, scarcely a single ball from the guns of our batteries struck amongst them, whilst all told with fearful exactness among the enemy.

We have no special predilection for descriptions of such scenes as the following, but it may be interesting to our readers to know the manner of the execution of deserters from a regular army.

The place appointed for the execution was a little elevated plain, a few hundred yards in front of the camp, and near the piquet from which the culprits had deserted. Hither the different battalions directed their steps, and the whole division being formed into three sides of a hollow square, the men grounded their arms, and stood still. At the vacant side of this square, a grave was dug, the earth, which had been excavated, being piled up on its opposite bank; and this, as the event proved, was the spot to be occupied by the prisoners.

We had stood thus about five minutes, when the muffled drums of the corps to which the culprits belonged, were heard beating the dead-march; and they themselves, hand-cuffed and surrounded by their guards, made their appearance. One was a fine young man, tall, and well-made; another was a dark, thick set, little man, about forty years of age; and the third had nothing remarkable in his countenance, except an expression of deep cunning and treachery. They all moved forward with considerable firmness, and took their stations on the mound, when, attention being ordered, a staff-officer advanced into the centre of the square, and read aloud the proceedings of the Court. By these, sentence of death was passed upon all three, but the most villainous-looking among them was recommended to mercy, on the score of his having added the guilt of treachery to his other crimes.

As soon as the reading was finished, the prisoners were commanded to kneel down upon the ground, and a handkerchief was tied over the eyes of each. Whilst this was doing, I looked round, not so much from curiosity as to give a momentary relief to my own excited feelings, upon the countenances of the soldiers. They were, one and all of them, deadly pale, whilst the teeth of the many were set closely together, and their very breaths seemed to be repressed. It was altogether a most harrowing moment.

The eyes of the prisoners being now tied up, the guard was withdrawn from around them, and took post about ten yards in their front. As soon as this was done, the same staff-officer who had read the proceedings of the trial, calling to the informer by name, ordered him to rise, for that the commander of the forces had attended to the recommendation of his judges, and spared his life. But the poor wretch paid no attention to the order; I question, indeed, whether he heard it; for he knelt there as if rooted to the spot, till a file of men removed him in a state of insensibility. What the feelings of his companions in crime must have been at this moment I know not, but their miseries were of short duration; for, a signal being given, about sixteen soldiers fired, and they were instantly numbered with the dead. The little man, I observed, sprang into the air when he received his wounds, the other fell flat upon his face; but neither gave the slightest symptom of vitality after.

The discharge of the muskets in the face of the culprits, was followed by a sound as if every man in the division had been stifled for the last five minutes, and now at length drew in his breath. It was not a groan nor a sigh, but a sob, like that which you unconsciously utter after dipping your head under water; and now all excitement was at an end. The men were dead; they died by musket-shot; and these were occurrences, viewing them in the abstract, far too common to be much regarded. But in order to give to the execution its full effect, the division formed into open column of battalions, and marched round the grave, on the brink of which the bodies lay; after which each corps filed off to its tents, and long before dark the scene of the morning was forgotten. Not but that it produced a good effect, by checking the prevalence of the offence of which it was the punishment; but pity soon died away, and every feeling of disgust, if, indeed, any such feeling had at all arisen, was obliterated. The bodies were thrown into the hole and covered up, and I returned to my tent to muse upon what I had seen.

The author gives some fine descriptions of natural scenery, but much the greater part of the book is filled up with accounts of the manner in which he disposed of his leisure time, notices of whatever events passed under his observation, and sometimes agreeable stories by way of episode. The volume closes with a survey of the armies about Bayonne, when intelligence was received of the abdication of Bonaparte.

A Grammar of Astronomy, with Problems on the Globes; to which is added, a Glossary of Terms and Questions for Examination, designed for the Use of Schools and Academies. By J. Towle. New York. 1825. 12mo. pp. 174.

We noticed, with approbation, on a former occasion, the typographical execution of this school-book, and intimated that at a future time, we should speak of the merits of the author a little more in detail than it was then in our power to do. We have at length found time to redeem our promise, and shall say what we think of the book with the less hesitation, because it treats of an exceedingly interesting subject, which it is a pity to render unintelligible by the assumption of false principles of communicating knowledge, as the foundation of the work. We are persuaded, that the author has by no means accomplished his design in the astronomical part of this treatise. It may be "adapted to the *business* of teaching," but it is certainly very poorly "adapted to the comprehension of beginners."

Many authors of elementary books,—and Mr Towle appears to be one of the number,—seem to suppose, that children, who are entirely unprovided with facts, can understand a difficult subject stated in the most general terms; or when the subject consists entirely of facts, by a mere allusion to those which are the most general; whereas to teach a person already provided with most of the same facts, they would not fail to state them fully. This is entirely wrong. To teach any subject to a child, as many facts, when the subject to be taught consists of facts, or examples, when general principles are to be derived from them, should be given as possible. They should also be of the simplest kind, and many should be given, that might be omitted with persons of riper years. If the book must be a small one, let it not be the less simple, but let it teach but little, and teach that little well. This will be found much more profitable for learners, than to endeavour to comprise a great deal in so small a space that they will be able to comprehend none of it. This Grammar pretends to teach the whole subject of astronomy; that is, to allude to all the principles, which can be comprehended in a popular treatise; and to give an account of the atmosphere, the winds, climates, and the aurora borealis, in sixty duodecimo pages. To those unacquainted with the subject, it must be unintelligible, and to those who are acquainted with it, it is useless.

The problems on the globes may be very useful. The plan of this part of the work is according to our principles of teaching

a subject by examples. The instructer will find it necessary, however, in teaching this part, to depend almost entirely on his own explanations. But this is an advantage, if he is competent to his task, and if he is not, no explanations in the book can discharge his duty for him. We do not think the author has always chosen the best arrangement for his examples; it will be easy, however, for an instructer to use them in any order he pleases, and to omit or supply as many as he pleases.

We noticed some inaccuracies, but none very important. The following is one:

All places on the same meridian, [says he,] from 66° 28′ north to 66° 28′ south, have noon, midnight, sunrise, and sunset at the same time. p. 68.

Two places on the same meridian, and in different latitudes, have not sunrise and sunset at the same time, except at the equinoxes.

We know that all will not be disposed to agree with us, when we protest against the author's extravagant use of technical terms. These were formerly very convenient for those who wished to appear learned with little study; but knowledge is now getting to be so generally diffused, that this will not much longer serve to cover ignorance; and we are persuaded, that those who actually possess the knowledge, will find it much easier to communicate it in plain, simple language.

MISCELLANY.

NAPOLEON AND FRANKLIN.

DIALOGUE OF THE DEAD.

Alas, undazzled by their noontide ray,
Compute the eve and morning of their day.

Dr Franklin. Welcome to your Imperial Majesty! We have been for fifteen or twenty years constantly in the hope of having an opportunity to see you. Many who have, from various causes, had quite an intimate connexion with your majesty, have preceded you, and have excited our curiosity respecting the time of your visit among us. As I was for a long time very pleasantly placed at the court of France during my life, I feel an additional motive for wishing the honour of your acquaintance.

Napoleon. Ah, Mr Doctor! I know you well; I liked your country; I should have done great things for the Americans in time; they are a great people; they want only war to develope

their internal energies and assist in forcing more foreign respect. Your nation is in a false position. Without nobility, army, navy, or manufactures, it is nothing. Why do you not take Mexico and Cuba? and why do you let the Russians keep a foot on your continent? Your government should be strong. You should call round it the men of property, the high class,—a popular government is a folly. France with a charter is worse than Prussia without one.

Dr Franklin. Your majesty has certainly showed the great power of an armed government, but have you not also proved its weakness? The surprising results which followed the organization into a great army of all the riches, intellect, and strength of a vast empire,—which turned France into one camp, produced and guided by your great talents,—are well known every where; perhaps, best of all to the inhabitants of this lower world; its population, from these and similar causes, has lately increased with a rapidity quite obvious to the slightest attention. Indeed, it is not unnatural that great results should be accomplished by such an instrument, when its existence is in itself a proof of how much has been already done. When the best talents of a great nation are aided by its dearest resources, and brought together, for any object, there is even in the fact, an amount of energy of all kinds which is valuable when thus collected.

Napoleon. Yes, Doctor, you are right. You are a clear man; you reason from facts. I detest their *ideology*, which proves nothing or every thing—Kant or Madame de Staël. I like your writings. I have read your economical works. It was from them I learned to *furnish my palace at Fontainbleau by degrees.** With the army I had, I should have treated with Alexander on his knees at St Petersburg, but for the frightful climate and the traitors. I deliberated, whether to march on St Petersburg or Wilna from Moscow. Afterwards I wanted but forty thousand Polish cossacks at Warsaw to have stopped the pursuit. That fool, de Pradt, understood nothing, and I lost the moment. I would have fought the battle on both sides the Niemen with Poles. Marmont and Augereau were traitors. Murat was wrongheaded. Who is minister of police here?

Dr Franklin. I must beg your majesty's forbearance. I am slightly deaf, and you are pleased to converse with rapidity. Pluto keeps the police department strictly in his own hands, not having the same confidence in the Duke d' Otranto with yourself. But I would remark, that in your recounting thus for your reverses, your majesty has seemed to forget, that they were the

*Napoleon boasted he had acquired the attachment of the Dutch, by persuading them that he furnished Fontainbleau economically and by degrees!

perfectly natural operation of the engines you employed. When, sire, you held your levee at Dresden, where there were eight or ten kings in your antechamber, whom you forced to accompany you with their people to wage war in your personal quarrel, you must have known that they would leave the French eagles, the moment they could do so with safety and profit. Your acute knowledge of the world too, sire, must have given you the private motives of the brilliant train which followed your *own person*— the princes, marshals, and dukes of your own creation. You knew, that with the exception of a few congenial souls, they would serve, in the true spirit of blind military subordination, whosoever could afford them rank and plunder. It was natural that they should still obey their commander, though it was against yourself, and that they should prefer their golden epaulettes to worsted,* though it was you who had raised them from the ranks. Your quarrel with England, then, I have sometimes permitted myself to think, had, for your interest, been better fought in Spain, the territory where she had invaded you, or at sea, rather than where your majesty was the invader. The resources of France are eminently maritime. The English indeed ascribe their great naval supremacy to their insular position. You well know the absurdity of this conclusion. England was as insular as she is now, in 1603, when one of her ministers declared, she had not a tenth as many ships as the Low Countries. At that time, the Dutch annually sent five or six hundred ships to the British ports from the markets of all the world, in return for about fifty or sixty from England. After your genius, then, had pushed so far its eastern border beyond the Rhine, would not the continental system have been best promoted by excluding British manufactures from the great and fertile portion of Europe you held, converting your recruits into seamen, and preparing sufficient naval strength to effect a landing on the island, if that object were expedient?

Napoleon. Bah! Doctor; the continental system was nothing; my dynasty, my glory every thing. A navy was as easy to my genius as an army; but the Seine is not navigable for ships of the line to Paris; and I should have been less than a Louis, in my Tuilleries, with a Jean Bart or a Paul Jones at Havre. A navy may conquer other nations, an army must rule its own. A great navy can exist only with great colonies; the French genius is averse to them; a Frenchman is nothing without his beautiful

* One of the marshals is reported to have been employed by Bonaparte to write a despatch from his dictation, under a heavy cannonade, when the former was only a sergeant. A ball struck very near and covered him with dust. He proceeded, remarking, "that the dust would serve for sand." On being asked by Bonaparte what he should do for him, "Take these worsted epaulettes and make them gold," replied the subaltern, which was accordingly done.

Paris. I carried Paris with me to the Berezina, but the *prestige* was lost there. All after that was false and Scythian.

Dr Franklin. As your majesty declares, with your royal frankness, that your career was strictly personal, will you allow me to inquire in the first place—

Napoleon. I was a sovereign, Doctor; it is our business to ask questions of others.

Dr Franklin. I too, sire, was a component part of sovereignty, and the sovereign of which I was, exercises the prerogative of asking questions with great freedom and perseverance; but, without pressing the form of conversation, I would beg your indulgence to the remark, that if the subservience of the North to the continental system, was not a part of any general policy, further than your own glory and power were your policy, that it strikes me, the continental wars, without public objects, which you chose to pursue were in direct violation of your true course of conduct. The peaceable possession of all the really valuable part of the continent, would, of course, have placed virtually under your control the Northern provinces, of which you sacrificed so much to obtain the nominal possession. If left at peace, the agricultural wealth of your own lovely country and the Rhenish territory must have supplied the wants of the cold regions of the North, while, under these favourable circumstances, besides the immense market of your own empire and its vast dependencies, your manufacturers could have entered into a most triumphant competition with the English.

Napoleon. I called the English a nation of traders; I believe I must call you Americans a nation of talkers. You have not penetrated my views—they were vast. After the submission of Russia, I would have employed Alexander's army against the Turks, and driven them into the Black Sea; with Egypt I would have crushed the English in India, where their population is calculated to be to the natives, who would have armed for me, as one to a thousand. I should then have beat up the Celestial Emperor, and tried how his umbrellas and fans would stand my Austerlitz bayonets; and, when so nigh your North Western territories and states—ah, Doctor, you smile—

Dr Franklin. Pardon me, sire, it is in admiration of your great projects. As to the last, the North Western Americans are a peculiarly pugnacious race, and I fear your guard would have revelled too long in the Celestial Empire and the Indian isles, not to find some Capuan inconveniences when they met our riflemen. But after these vast conquests, sire, after the eagles had been triumphant from St Petersburg across both continents, what would your genius then have directed itself to? One prince of antiquity would have answered me, that he would then sit down

to his banquet; and another, after having conquered a few tribes, whom a battalion of your guard would have dispersed without firing, might have wept that he had no other worlds to conquer;—but what could have occupied your vast genius when the world had submitted to your arms? How far was it probable, that another intellect like your own, would have been found ready to wield a power, which could hardly have been obtained but by the first who aspired to it? When Europe, or, if your majesty pleases, the world had become accustomed to Napoleons, it would learn to guard itself against them. Their rapid marches would no longer be surprises, and their concentration of force on a single point would be met by similar tactics on the defensive. In most of your majesty's manifestoes you were accustomed to display a disinclination to war for its own sake, and a fondness for a general pacification. Indeed your situation must have led you to a perfect comprehension of what is little understood, the paralyzing effect of long wars on national industry. The popular complaints of the horrors of war, arising from the sudden and violent death of a vast number of the strongest and best young men of society; the desolation, by fire and plunder, of great tracts of country held by neutral and innocent proprietors, and the shame, pollution, and vice brought to the household gods of the industrious peasantry; these a statesman and general may be supposed to overlook, as the necessary consequences to be met in promoting his public views—a sort of wear and tear of the political machine. But a mind like yours, sire, of so comprehensive a cast, could not but have observed, that the most ruinous effects result to the general character of nations from the habit of military employment. A great demand is immediately created for certain branches of industry. The personal services of a very numerous class of citizens are first put in requisition, and of course diverted from their usual channels. The classes who continue to labour are employed principally in supplying the necessities of war or in producing substitutes for those branches of supply, which a state of non-intercourse and the cessation of production render necessary. As this labour cannot be paid, in the peaceful manner by exchange, an anticipation of the wages of labour in future times, must in consequence take place. A large fictitious capital must be brought forward, which, with all the other inconveniences attending it, has the very pernicious operation of causing the returns received from labour in the soil, to be applied to paying the interest of debt, instead of being vested again in production. Thus the whole labour of the community is employed in a manner, in which it is, by the nature of things, impossible for it to be eventually paid, seeing, what is clear, that the citizen who passes his year in walking round with a musket on his shoulder can produce

nothing. On the other hand, the armed labourers, taken as a class, are entirely fed by the labours of posterity, while occupied in consuming the capital on which alone posterity can trade.

Napoleon. Bravo! *Bon homme Richard;* you would have a great sovereign think like an American trader, like one of your shop-keeping generals; you would send the soul of Sylla and Cæsar to the ledger; you American planters do not feel the pride of dominion and glory,—of vast territories and wide sway.

Dr Franklin. True, we are a plain race. Civil war, assassination, and proscription have no charms for our great men. We have founded an empire destined to be wider than the Roman, yet has not one drop of American blood been ever shed by treason. The language has been spread through vast regions, not as yours, imposed by your iron legions on Europe, but by peaceful colonization and extension. In the mean time, we have been honestly labouring to gain the intelligence and refinement we know we want. In despite of the general contempt of the English men of letters, my countrymen have persevered; and having become strong and rich they will become learned and wise. When that peaceful, fertile, and free land is adorned by science and the arts, when it has fixed the habit of peace on the world, and brought men to labour for production and happiness, where will be the glory of the conquerors, whose veterans, with hearts as iron as their corslets, have cut down an undisciplined enemy or trampled the peace and virtue of their own country in blood and dust. Then may come the fortunate time, when the heroes of the world, instead of ending a few years' desolation in exile or by poison, will be forced by society to remain in congenial solitude from the first, and the deity of Public Justice will again return to earth.

Napoleon. Enough, Doctor, this philosophizing is worse than Moscow.

THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

XVIII. COMMERCE, IN RELATION TO THE GENERAL INTERESTS OF SOCIETY.

NATURE having made mankind dependant one upon another for the supply of their mutual wants, the interchange of the products of their labour to this end was a thing of necessity. From this necessity commerce had its origin, and with its progress civilization advanced, industry increased, and the comforts and enjoyments of life were multiplied.

Commerce, by the means which it affords to industry for the exchange of its products, enables this, in all situations, to direct

its operations to that object, which yields the greatest return, and to the production of such articles as are most peculiarly adapted to soil and climate. Commerce encourages industry, and industry in return supports commerce; they act and react upon each other to their mutual advantage. The more industry multiplies its products, the more employment there is for commerce in their distribution. The greater the diversity of employments in a community, the greater is its industry, and the more industry is subdivided the more productive it becomes. But it is by the employment of natural powers in aid of haman labour, and by means of machinery, that production is most rapidly accelerated; and it is therefore by those public measures, which lead to these productive results, that commerce is most to be encouraged.

An apprehension, however, prevails, though without just cause, that the encouragement of domestic manufacture, by duties on the import of foreign manufacture, would restrict and curtail foreign commerce. The effect is directly the reverse. The measure increases internal industry, and with the increase of that, foreign commerce increases. There is not an article of our exports, which we should export the less of, in consequence of our importing less of foreign manufactures, excepting, perhaps, that portion of cotton, which, if we did not manufacture it ourselves, would have entered into the manufacture of the foreign cotton goods, which we should have imported. But even in respect to that, commerce is a great gainer by the measure in question; for the employment for both navigation and capital in transporting the cotton for a given quantity of goods from the Southern states for manufacture in the more Northern, is more than double what there would have been in transporting to Europe that portion of our cotton which would have entered into the manufacture of an equal quantity of goods there. And our commerce having the exclusive supply of this material for the home manufacture, but less than half the supply of it for the foreign, will gain twice as much by supplying the increasing use of it at home, as it will lose by any diminished use of it from that cause abroad.

Our exports are of the sea, the forest, mechanic arts, agriculture, and of manufacture; and what article is there, which comes under these heads, that any nation will require the less of, because we require less of British manufacture? Not one, with the previous exception of cotton. Our exports then will continue undiminished, and the net proceeds of them will be invested in foreign products, and though some of the objects of investment will be changed, the amount of investment will be undiminished. Of our foreign commerce, that is most to our advantage, which is with people, whose climates and industry are different from ours, and who take from us for their consumption the products natural

to our climate and industry, and give us in exchange therefor other products peculiar to their climates and industry.

Such is the commerce of our Northern states with the West and East Indies, South America, Africa, and the Atlantic Islands; and of our Southern States with Europe. In this trade, our industry is encouraged by the peculiar returns it gets for its reward. Of these returns, after our own wants are supplied, a large surplus remains, in which consist the profits of the trade. With that portion of this surplus, which results from the commerce of the Northern States with the East and West Indies, &c., we now enter into another branch of our foreign commerce, which is with nations, whose climate and industry are similar to ours,—the nations of Europe.

In this branch of commerce, we, in a great measure, expend the profits gained in the former branch, and we do it to our disadvantage in the purchase of various manufactures, most of which, were it not for the discouragement which the importation of them thus produces, would be furnished by our own industry. And were this industry sufficiently encouraged to do so, that surplus would then be employed to import other articles which our wants would require, instead of manufactures; but which, until that be the case, we must forego the use of, for want of the means of making the purchase.

The additions to public wealth from commerce are made up of the profits gained by the parties on both sides, in the exchange of commodities. The farmer, when he exchanges his beef, pork, and flour with the merchant for tea, coffee, and sugar, and consumes them, adds nothing to his property, although he does to his enjoyments. But when he exchanges them for money, and with that employs the builder, carpenter, and joiner to enlarge his accommodations and multiply his conveniences, he not only adds to his comforts, but he increases his wealth, and at the same time imparts benefits to the persons whom he employs.

The merchant, on his part, exports this beef, pork, and flour, and receives from abroad a greater quantity of tea, coffee, sugar, and money in exchange for them, than he gave the farmer. Of this additional quantity, that which remains after paying the expenses incurred in the operation, is the profit or product of his capital and industry, and is, to the amount of it, so much added to his general capital. And he, by repeating this operation, with means each time increased, continues to add more and more to capital, till he finds that as this is augmented, the profits on its employment are diminished. Now, therefore, he is induced, with a view to greater profit, to give a portion of it another direction. This he does by employing it in the purchase of mill-sites, the erection of buildings, the construction of machinery, the establishment of manufactories, &c.; by doing which he not only increases

his own wealth, but adds to that of the community. For in this country, in the present state of its industry, when agricultural production exceeds the home and foreign consumption together, every additional employment of labour in other occupations may be considered, to the value of the products of it, so much clear gain to the nation, or in other words, so much more gained than would have been gained, had not the labour been thus employed.

Navigation not only affords one of the most productive sources of the increase of public wealth, but it also supplies powerful means to be employed in public defence. It rears up a class of patriotic, hardy, and daring men, always ready for the public service when called for; and it is no small advantage to the nation to have constantly at command so efficient a force, free of any expense to support it. Notwithstanding, however, the importance of navigation to the public prosperity and security, that portion of it which is employed in foreign commerce, is the only one of all the divisions of industry, which receives no compensation for what it contributes towards the protection of the industry of others against foreign competition.

When the husbandman pays more, in consequence of the duty on imports, to the home manufacturer for the cloth bought of him, the husbandman gets as much more in return, from the same cause, for the wool which he sells the manufacturer, and thus the thing is equalized between them. But it is not so with the ship-owner in foreign trade. Though he pays more for the materials which enter into the construction of his ship, in consequence of the duties laid on the import to encourage the home production, he gets no return for it. He cannot, on that account, add any thing to the rate of freight, because he, being in open competition with the foreign ship-owner, must carry as low as he does, or else remain unemployed. Therefore, were a drawback allowed in ship building, at so much per ton, to the amount of the duties on the foreign materials used in their construction, it would, in respect to the general system of encouragement, be no more than placing this branch of industry upon a just equality with the others, and we should then be able with our ships to enter into competition against foreign shipping upon more equal terms. The effect of doing this, however, would be rather to increase ship-building than to profit ship-owners; for the increase of ships would, by competition, reduce the rate of freight, and lower the profit of ship-owners to about the same level it was at before. But every other individual, who produced an article for export, or consumed an article of import, would, in the reduction of freight, be a gainer; for every diminution of expense in the transportation of an article increases the consumption of it, by lowering its price to the consumer.

That portion of navigation, which is employed in the coasting trade, is of more consequence than that employed in the foreign. Its tonnage is greater, and is rapidly increasing with the increasing industry of the country. Like the navigation in foreign trade, it is productive of wealth by the value which it adds to commodities by their transport; and it is so in an equal degree with that. For when one employment of vessels is more profitable than the other, vessels are turned from one to the other employment, until the profit is equalized between them.

Navigation in the coasting trade, in respect to its influence in exciting to production in the different divisions of industry, operates with double the effect that our navigation in foreign trade does, because our foreign navigation divides its influence, employing one half of it at home to the encouragement of home industry, and carrying the other half abroad to the equal encouragement of foreign industry. Whereas the coast-wise navigation, though it divides its influence between the places it connects in intercourse, yet employs the whole of it at home, to the encouragement of home production. Our inland and coast-wise trade is beyond comparison more important to national interests than our foreign commerce. It employs more tons of navigation than the foreign; and the vessels it employs make several interchanges of merchandise, while the vessels employed in the foreign trade are making but one. It employs more capital, in proportion as the amount of goods to be exchanged by it is greater; and the capital employed affords equal profit in proportion to its amount. The home market for the surplus products of our various industry, with the exception of two or three articles of Southern produce, is probably of four times the extent of the foreign market.

The interchange of domestic products among ourselves excites our interest doubly as much as does the interchange of products between us and foreign nations. When commerce exchanges the cotton of the Southern states for the productions of the Northern, it promotes equally the industry of both. But when commerce exchanges it with foreign nations for their cotton goods, it encourages industry in only one section of the Union, discourages it in another, and promotes it abroad. And by our consumption of the foreign cotton goods, with which our foreign commerce thus supplies us, the cotton-planter of the Southern states is only about half as much encouraged in the cultivation of cotton, as he would be by our consumption of an equal quantity of cotton goods of home manufacture. For the home manufacturer uses none but cotton of domestic cultivation; whereas the foreign manufacturers use about as much cotton produced in other countries, as they do of cotton of this country, in the manufacture of their goods. Therefore, in consuming foreign cotton goods, we encourage the culture of cotton in foreign countries as much as in our own.

Our political institutions facilitate, to talents and industry engaged in useful pursuits, the acquisition of wealth; but at the same time guard against the pernicious effects of a too great inequality in its possession, by requiring its distribution in the course of descent. Thus, while they prevent the withdrawing of any portion of the national wealth for the perpetual aggrandizement of a few families to the impoverishment of many, they provide that the whole property of the nation, real as well as personal, without reserve, shall be placed within the reach of all, as a common fund, out of which productive industry and the exercise of useful talents may draw their full reward. In the excitement to active industry, and to the exercise of talents, thus produced by our political institutions, in the extent of our territory, in the variety of our soils and climates and labours, in our uncontrolled choice of pursuit, and unrestricted freedom of intercourse,—in all this our home commerce possesses advantages, by means of which, with the public regulations which protect it against foreign interposition, and with the increase of population and industry, it is destined to attain a greater magnitude and higher degree of prosperity, than the home commerce of any other nation has ever attained.

H. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

THE FAIR ITALIAN.

She looked how lovely;—not the face of heaven
In its serenest calm, nor earth in all
Its garniture of flowers, nor all that live
In the bright world of dreams, nor all the eye
Of a creative spirit meets in air,
Could in the smile and sunshine of her charms,
Not feel itself o'ermastered by such rare
And perfect beauty. Grace was over all;—
Her form, her face, her attitudes, her motions,
Each had peculiar charms. Like gliding swans,
Sailing upon the bosom of a lake,
Before the breeze of evening, when the waves
Curl rippling round their bosoms, so she moved
Through all the mazy dance. She bore herself
So gently, that the lily on its stalk
Bends not so easily its dewy head,
As with a gliding step she wound her way
To the soft echoes of the light guitar,
The dreamy music of her sunny clime,

Where all is languishing. There was a brightness,
How high, and yet how soothing, in her smile.
O! I could look on her a summer's day,
Delighted—every moment more delighted
With the soft sense that hovers over me,
When on a slope of moss, I lay me down
In the warm sun of April. I could kneel
In worship to her, as a radiant vision
Sent from a purer world, without a stain
Of earth breathed over her, but all entire
In infant loveliness, yet ripe and full
In her meridian elegance, a flower
With all its leaves expanded, and its hues
Mellowed by kindly sunbeams.

It was evening—
The sun looked through the wood of chesnut trees,
And bronzed their rugged trunks, and lit their leaves,
Till, as they rustled on the bending boughs,
Each seemed a flake of gold; and far beyond them
My eye caught glimpses of a quiet bay,
A nook of sleeping waters, where the light
Shone with a flashing blaze. It was so still!
The wind had stolen into the mountain valleys,
And left the plains and hillocks to the calm,
That sinks upon the world, when night steals on,
And the day takes its farewell, like the words
Of a departing friend, or the last tone
Of hallowed music, in a minster's aisles,
Heard, when it floats along the shade of elms,
In the still place of graves. A wood of palms
Rose on a far hill, where the amber light
Was rich and dazzling, with their painted leaves
So nicely balanced, that the faintest breathing
Of the wide air swayed them in graceful curves,
While all below seemed in the still repose
Of sleep, the twin of death, that infant slumber,
Where life is only visible in the play
Of blushes, which forever come and go
On the soft cheek's transparency, as pure
As the clear rime, that masks the untimely rose,
Mellowing its purple to the hues of heaven,
The tremulous tints of air.

I lay abroad
In careless dreaming, by the twisted roots
Of an outspreading beech-tree, and methought,

The swains of Enna and Parthenope
Were dancing round me to the sound of viols
And oaten pipes. As the light sank away,
The rose and jasmine thickets, and the shades
O'erhung with vines in the full scent of flowers,
Seemed populous with the sylvan family
Of nymphs and fauns. I listened to the sounds
Of Grecian melody and song, and lay
Reclining on a couch of new plucked leaves,
Attentive to the many quiet voices
That fill a summer's night—the drowsy hum
Of beetles, and the shrill cicada's song,
And the complaining of the nightingale,
That in a bush of brambles, passed away
The silent hours, in answering to the echoes
Herself had made. As thus I sank away
In pleasant thoughts of the dear times of old,
I saw a group of dancers, on a lawn
Not distant, to the music of the lute
Cross the yet rosy twilight. She was there,
Lovelier for the witching time they chose
To be their hour of joy. Her full dark curls
Were clustered on a brow of ivory,
And fell in lavish wealth, shading a neck
Clear as an alabaster shrine concealing
A ruby, that with soft suffusion fills it,
As with a living glow. Her face was kindled
By the quick glances of her large black eyes,
That flashed from underneath her arching brows,
Like gems in caves; and yet there was a softness
At times, when shades of thought stole over her—
But in the happy consciousness of beauty
Her heart was all so joyous, that her smiles
Gave a perpetual sunlight to that face,
So beautiful, to see it was to love.
I could not choose but watch with earnest gaze
One of so perfect form and finished grace,
That those who moved around her, were but foils
Heightening the one sole diamond. When I look
On one so fair, I must believe that Heaven
Sent her in kindness, that our hearts might waken
To its own loveliness, and lift themselves
By such an adoration from a dark
And grovelling world. Such beauty should be worshipped,
And not a thought of weakness or decay
Should mingle with the pure and hallowed dreams,

In which it dwells before us. It should live
Eternal; or if it must pass away,
And lose one tint of its now perfect brightness,
Let it be hidden from me; for the sense,
That all this glow must fade, falls on my heart,
Like the cold weight of death.

P.

THE SHAKER AND THE SHOES.

Is there not yet among the Nine,
Some unappropriated muse,
Will deign to grace this lay of mine,
The "Shaker and the Shoes!"

In one of those inexplicable places,
A shaker village,
Where women just chastise the Graces,
And men grow stout and sober in their way
On temperance and tillage,
There lived one day,
A fair-faced lady of the faith;
Who, not remembering what the covenant saith,
'Bout men and marriage,
And all that sort of thing,
Could never down her pulses bring;
Indeed 't was with much difficulty she slept;
Yet still maintained her outward carriage,
In spite of younger blood,
Amidst the starchy sisterhood,
And kept
Her cap and kerchief ruffleless as they.

There was one Elder Drab,
Christened Aminidab,
A fellow,
Whose face had grown as bilious as his house—
Most infamously yellow;
And he would steal about like any mouse
Around these sanctimonious jails,
In hopes, perchance, should he in moonlight hover,
He might some godless, natural "gifts" discover
Among the priestesses of brooms and pails.

Prowling about one night
Just underneath the garden wall,
(The moon was most benevolently bright—
Aminidab was tall)—

Within the dim protection of the shade,
He heard a silent kind of noise,
Such as by whispering trees is made;
Or such as comes from boiling lead,
When dropped in water by the boys.
He lists again—but yet no voice
'Mid these mysterious sounds!
Until at length with echoing bounds
They seem to skip,
Like crackings from a coachman's whip!

To raise himself upon a slab
Was natural for Aminidab.

There, underneath this garden wall
Our sleepless, sacred sister stood:
While round her neck had bound him fast
A little hero of the last;
And innocent as any doll,
Caressed by little misses,
With cheek unvisited by blood,
It was so natural,
She was bestowing worlds of blisses,
For which there's no accounting;
And he was whispering heartily the "gift" was good!—
In short, our honest Crispin was discounting
Plain, sensible, substantial kisses.

Aminidab got down—
His eyes were sated;
But then he felt his peace was flown
And a strange feeling in his mouth had grown;
He thought he had been salivated.

The next day meeting with the man of wax,
"Good Levi Lapstone," quoth Aminidab,
"Thee seest my *understanding* lacks,
I verily must have a pair of shoes."
Said Levi, "With great pleasure—"
And took his measure.
"But then," said Drab, "the cheapest way I choose;
So Levi, I 'll not pay thee for the shoes."—
"Then," Levi cried,
"Thee must find leather in thy hide."
"Nay, Levi," said Aminidab,
"Thou art ungodly, and I know it—
And certainly 't is best
To nip the devil now;

Though, if the truth must be confest,
Thy crime was beautiful, I vow."

The elder rose upon his toes,
And wiped his mouth and nose.

"Yea, Levi, thee must do it,
Because our covenant is so,
That if a man have a gift to meet a sister,
In moonshine or the dark,
The hapless spark
Must surely to damnation go,
If ever it be proved he kissed her.
For next (with *us*, my friend) to cursing,
There's nothing so heretical as b*****g.
So to the shoes go quick about,
Or else, I think I 'll bring thee out.
And, Levi, to help make things right,
Perhaps 't will be agreeable to all,
Be sure to leave them by next Friday night,
Just underneath the garden wall!"

Poor Crispin boiled with rage—
"Now, Drab, I swear"—but then Aminidab
Cut short his oaths with counsel sage:
"Hold, friend!—thee need not *swear*,
Only *affirm* thee 'll put them there."
"Damn Mr Drab," cried Levi, as he went—
"So much for kissing with a good intent."

What course was there to choose?
On Friday night the Shaker found the shoes.

G. M.

EUTHANASIA.

My hour has come. I lay me down
With the dark grave in view;
And hoping for a heavenly crown,
I bid the world adieu.
The angry forms of earth are fled,
The gentle in decay;
For me no golden beams are shed,
My eyes are closed for aye.

One sense remains. I feel a hand
That gently grasps my own;

I deem it one by sorrow fanned,
So tremulous its tone.
If it be thine, my gentle bride!
Grieve not thy fond heart thus;
For, though the grave awhile divide,
Death opens a heaven to us.

I asked of God an easy death,
And he has heard my prayer;
My soul ebbs like the zephyr's breath
When noon-day calms the air.
A little throbbing of my heart
Weak as an infant's cry;—
If thus life's links are rent apart
Why are we loath to die?

I deemed of tortures in death's hour,
Of fevered brain and limb,
And of unearthly forms that lower
When the eye waxes dim.
My dreams in death have other mould,
Forms beautiful and bright
Are with me—not the beaten gold
Shines like those shapes of light.

I 'm sinking as a bird on wing
Drops from his soaring high;
Comes to my tongue a faltering,
And darkness to my eye.
O! lift the mighty hill of snow
From off my frozen breast;
I come—the scene is closed below,
And I enjoy a rest. J.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Leisure Hours at Sea: being a few Miscellaneous Poems. By a Midshipman of the United States Navy. New York. 1825. 12mo. pp. 148.

We have been repeatedly accused of dealing harsh judgments upon the numerous poetical aspirants, whom it has been our lot to notice, since we commenced our labours; and nothing seems to have given greater offence to the disappointed candidates and their partial friends, than our confining the name of poet to those only whom we think worthy of that high distinction. We adhere, however, to an old and approved maxim, that there can be no such

thing as a middle-rate poet. Poets, we are proud to say, we have among us, and we trust that we shall never hesitate to add to their list whenever we have an opportunity. Nothing gives us more pleasure than the discovery of a new poet; it amply consoles us for the volumes of emptiness which we have to go over in the performance of our duty to the public; ay,—and if they would but acknowledge it,—to the authors themselves.

Will our readers doubt, after reading the following extract,—which we do assure them is a fair sample of the 150 pages contained in the volume, whose title stands at the head of this article,—that had not the author modestly withheld his name, we might have added another to our list of American poets?

> He hears of outrage done by ruffian hordes,
> Whose savage hearts are harder than their swords.
> At suffering's cry he ne'er was known to wave;
> His hand was ready, and his soul was brave!
> He meets the foe—he conquers!—oh, the rest!—
> The fatal bullet lodges in his breast!
> He falls! as crimson life gushed out, he cried
> "Tell them I bravely fought—and bravely died!"

To be serious, we think that the young midshipman, whoever he may be, would employ his leisure hours to better advantage in the study of Bowditch's Navigator, than in the writing of bad verses.

An Address, delivered before the American Academy of the Fine Arts, November 17, 1825. By Richard Ray. New York. 1825. 4to. pp. 48.

This Address is printed in a style of uncommon beauty, which does credit to the American press; and it would have attracted our attention, and received our commendation, if deserving it only for this single cause. It possesses, however, intellectual merits, which entitle it to respectful notice. Exhibiting intimate knowledge of the ornamental arts, and a fine, cultivated, classical taste, it is distinguished, still more, by the finished elegance and purity of its composition. Indeed, we conceive most of the occasional orations, which our press has so abundantly produced of late, may safely challenge comparison, in this respect, with the works of the very best contemporary English writers. Let any unbiassed judge examine the choicest of their compositions, and we think he would be struck with the multitude of their slovenly *neologisms*, introduced as clumsy substitutes for more significant words of sterling mark, which they heedlessly neglect. Nor could he fail to observe the equally frequent recurrence of words carelessly and causelessly used in forced senses, wide of their authorized and ordinary ac-

ceptation. Our literature is yet in its youth. It is not quite hardened into the bone of manhood. We rejoice, that in this stage of its progress, it assumes an elevated tone, and is ambitious of acquiring, in its now flexible and plastic state, a form and consistency, which it may continue proud to bear in its maturer age. Concerning the topics discussed in this Address, it is unnecessary for us to dilate, so large a space in our journal having recently been devoted to the subject.

Observations on Electricity, Looming, and Sounds, together with a Theory of Thunder Showers and of West and North West Winds. To which are added, a Letter from the Hon. Thomas Jefferson, and Remarks by the Hon. Samuel L. Mitchell. By George F. Hopkins. New York. 1825. 8vo. pp. 40.

THE public have a right to expect in a book of this size, professing to treat several interesting topics in natural philosophy, some new facts or some ingenious reasonings and inferences from those before known. But in this pamphlet they will find neither. The author, we infer from the perusal of his book, has yet to learn that hypothesis is not philosophy. And if he really wishes to benefit the world by his researches in philosophy, we suggest to him to confine his labours to the observation and description of phenomena and the collection of facts from authentic sources. If phenomena are governed by any general laws, it will be in season to trace those laws after the phenomena themselves are known.

INTELLIGENCE.

RUNNING A MUCK.

As the phrase "*running a muck*," is not a very common one, and has lately been revived and made classical in our language, we think a description of the custom from which it derives its significancy may be interesting to our readers. "The practice of running a muck, which is common in all the surrounding islands, is particularly frequent in this island [Celebes.] A person who has suffered a severe affront, especially if his life or honour is in danger, and he is laid under restraint or captivity, if any weapon is within reach, he lays hold of it without the slightest warning; and sometimes, with a hideous shout, immediately stabs those nearest to him, and, running about with an infuriated look, deals death among friends and foes indiscriminately, till he himself is put to death by some person, who thus performs an important service to society. The officers of police are furnished with three-pronged forks for the purpose of overpowering persons in this unfortunate and desperate condition. In these islands it is dangerous to be seen running, as none runs except persons in a muck, or thieves, and when any one is seen to run, it is reckoned justifiable to pursue him and put him to death."

BOTANY BAY.

THE town of Sydney, the capital of the English Colony at Botany Bay, has twelve hundred houses and seven thousand inhabitants; and such is the demand for land and new buildings, that the former in many places is stated to be worth 1000*l.* an acre; and that houses let for from 100*l.* to 500*l.* a year.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN EUROPE.

A FRENCH journal has furnished an estimate of the number of children in the several countries of Europe, who are educated at public schools, compared with the whole population. According to this table, the pupils of the public schools in the circle of Gratz, is one in nine of the whole population; in Bohemia, one in eleven; in Moravia and Silesia, one in twelve; in Austria, one in thirteen; in Prussia, one in eighteen; in France, one in thirty; in Scotland, one in ten; in England, one in sixteen; in Ireland, one in eighteen; in Poland, one in seventy-eight; in Portugal, one in eighty; and in Russia, one in nine hundred and fifty-four.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS, SCIENCES, AND PHILOSOPHY.

Elements of Electricity, Magnetism, and Electro-Magnetism, embracing the late Discoveries and Improvements, digested into the form of a Treatise; being the Second Part of a Course of Natural Philosophy, compiled for the Use of the Students of the University at Cambridge, New England. By John Farrar, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. 8vo. pp. 395. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

A Select Collection of valuable and Curious Arts, and interesting Experiments, which are well explained, and warranted genuine, and may be performed easily, safely, and at little expense. 18mo. pp. 102. Concord, N. H. Rufus Porter.

A Memoir on the Upward Forces of Fluids, and their applicability to several arts, sciences, and public improvements: for which a patent has been granted by the Government of the United States to the author, Edmund Charles Genet, a citizen of the United States, Member of the Institute of France, of the Royal Antiquarian Society of London, of the Philosophical Society of New York, &c. &c. 8vo. Albany, N. Y.

EDUCATION.

Elements of History, Ancient and Modern: with Historical Charts. By J. E. Worcester. 1826. 12mo. pp. 324. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

The American Speaker, or Exercises in Rhetoric; being a Selection of Speeches, Dialogues, and Poetry, from the best American and English sources, suitable for Recitation. 1826. 12mo. pp. 444. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

LAW.

Reports of Cases Argued and Determined in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts. By Octavius Pickering, Counsellor at Law. Volume II. Containing the Cases from October Term, 1823, in Plymouth, &c. to November Term, 1824, in Essex, both inclusive. Royal 8vo. pp. 659. Boston. Harrison Gray.

A Compilation of Laws, Treaties, Resolutions, and Ordinances of the General and State Governments, which relate to Land in the State of Ohio, &c. Published by Authority. 8vo. Price $3. Columbus, Ohio. George Nashee & Co.

MEDICINE.

A Vindication of the Thomsonian System of the Practice of Medicine on Botanical Principles, as originated by Samuel Thomson, and continued by his Coadjutors. By John Thomson. 8vo. pp. 74. Albany, N. Y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An attempt to demonstrate the Practicability of Emancipating the Slaves of the United States of North America, and of removing them from the Country, without impairing the Right of Private Property, or subjecting the Nation to a Tax. By a New-England Man. 8vo. pp. 75. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

An Address, delivered before the Columbian Institute, December, 1825. By Thomas Law, Esq. a Member of the Institute. 8vo. Washington. Davis & Force.

NOVELS.

A Peep at the Pilgrims in Sixteen Hundred and Thirty-six; a Tale of Olden Times. By the Author of divers unfinished Manuscripts. 2 vols. 12mo. Second edition. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

POETRY.

A Poem, before the Connecticut Alpha of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, September 13th, 1825. By James G. Percival. 8vo. Boston.

Miscellaneous Poems, selected from the United States Literary Gazette. 18mo. pp. 172. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co., and Harrison Gray.

POLITICS.

The Message from the Governor to the Legislature of the State of New York, on the Opening of the Session, January 3, 1826. 8vo. pp. 17. Albany. J. B. Van Steenbergh.

THEOLOGY.

A Sermon, delivered at the Dedication of the Second Congregational Church in Northampton, December 7th, 1825. By Henry Ware, Jr. Minister of the Second Church in Boston. 8vo.

A Sermon on the only True Foundation, and the Difference of Materials of the Spiritual Building, the Church: delivered in St Stephen's Church, in the city of Philadelphia, on Sunday, September 25, 1825, on an occasion of ordaining to the ministry, and printed at the request of the Rector, Church Wardens, and Vestrymen of the said Church. By William White, D. D. Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. 1825. pp. 24. Philadelphia. William Stavely.

TOPOGRAPHY.

A Map of the States of Missouri and Illinois, and Territory of Arkansas; taken from recent Surveys in the Office of the Surveyor General at St Louis. By E. Brown and E. Bancroft. Philadelphia. R. T. Brown.

Views of West Point, the United States Military Academy; West Point from Fort Clinton, from the Cadets' Monuments; the Highlands from West Point. Coloured Aquatints, from Drawings. By Thomas Doughty. Philadelphia.

VOYAGES.

History of a Voyage to the China Sea. By John White, Lieutenant in the United States Navy. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 372. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

Curiosities for the Ingenious, selected from the most authentic Treasures of Nature, Science, and Art, Biography, History, and General Literature, with Thirteen Engravings. 18mo. Philadelphia. Ash & Mason.

Il Tancredi. Tancred; an Heroic Opera, in two Acts, as performed at the New York Theatre. The Music by Gioacchino Rossini. 18mo. pp. 55. New York. E. M. Murden.

The Cunning Lover, L'Amante Astuto, Opera Comica. In due Atti. Poesia del Signor Rosich, Musica del Signor Manuel Garzia. 18mo. pp. 57. New York. E. M. Murden.

George Barnwell; a Novel. By T. S. Surr, Author of "Splendid Misery," &c. A New Edition. 12mo. Boston. S. H. Parker.

A Dictionary of Quotations, which are in daily Use, taken from the Latin, French, Greek, Spanish, and Italian Languages; together with a copious Collection of Law Maxims and Law Terms; Translated into English, with Illustrations, Historical and Idiomatic. By D. E. M'Donald, Esq. Fourth American Edition, Corrected, with Additions. Philadelphia.

The Contributions of Q. Q. to a Periodical Work, with some Pieces not before published. By the late Jane Taylor. 2 Vols. 12mo.

An Introduction to the Practice of Midwifery. By Thomas Denman, M. D. From the last London Edition, revised by the Author. With Notes and Emendations. By John W. Francis, M. D. 8vo. pp. 684. New York. E. Bliss & E. White.

A Conspectus of the Pharmacopœias of the London, Edinburgh, and Dublin Colleges of Physicians; being a Practical Compendium of Materia Medica and Pharmacy. By Anthony Todd Thompson. First American, from the last London Edition. Improved by American additions, &c. 18mo. New York.

The Bankrupt Act, 5 Geo. IV. c. 98; with Notes and Index, together with the Chancellor's Orders, and the Unrepealed Statutes relating to Bankruptcy. By James Kennedy, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. New York. E. B. Gould.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. III. FEBRUARY 15, 1826. No. 10.

REVIEWS.

Memoirs of the Life of the Right Honourable Richard Brinsley Sheridan. By THOMAS MOORE. Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo. pp. 602.

WE have, in the earlier numbers of this work, on one or two occasions, incidentally expressed our opinions of Mr Moore as an author. He is a pretty trifler, but we are sorry, that the friends of Sheridan, for some friends he did retain, should not have selected a more competent biographer. The book is amusing, as might be expected; but it is not interesting, nor even entertaining. In the literary and political history of England for the last half century, the name of Sheridan occurs too frequently for any biography of him to contain many facts in his public life, that will be new to readers of the present day. At the age of twenty-six, in the year 1777, he had established his reputation as no inconsiderable person among the giants of literature with whom the time abounded; and soon afterwards, in politics, he placed himself by the side of Burke and Fox, and fought in the same ranks with them in the parliamentary contests of that eventful period. A memoir of the public life of such a man, it is obvious, must depend for its interest not upon the novelty of the facts which are told, but upon the skill of the biographer in the construction of his narrative. In this we think Mr Moore has signally failed; we can remember nothing in continuity,—his account is made up of shreds, and in looking back to refresh the memory as to any particular fact, we feel painfully the want of an index. Mr Moore, indeed somewhere passes a censure upon Tomline's Life of Pitt, as being but a

transcript from the Register of Parliamentary Debates. After an hour's search we have found the passage, and we quote it.

As it is not my desire to imitate those biographers, who swell their pages with details that belong more properly to history, I shall forbear to enter into a minute or consecutive narrative of the proceedings of parliament on the important subject of the regency. A writer of political biography has a right, no doubt, like an engineer who constructs a navigable canal, to lay every brook and spring in the neighbourhood under contribution for the supply and enrichment of his work. But, to turn into it the whole contents of the Annual Register and Parliamentary Debates is a sort of literary engineering, not quite so laudable, which, after the example set by a Right Reverend biographer of Mr Pitt, will hardly again be attempted by any one, whose ambition, at least, it is to be read as well as bought.

Now this Life of Pitt was to us exceedingly interesting, and the more so, for its minute history of the parliamentary struggles for power. Such, however, was not Mr Moore's plan, and his work is mid-way between a book of anecdotes and a full narrative; losing thus the peculiar excellence of both species of composition.

In politics, as it is generally known, Mr Moore is a furious partisan of the ultra-whig school. To this we have no objection, and should not have alluded to the subject, were it not apparent, that his political prejudices have made him misrepresent the character of another man, who,—great as Sheridan was, and powerful as were many other men by whom he was surrounded,—was yet greater and more powerful than them all. Mr Moore in his account of the rupture of the whig party, on the breaking out of the French revolution, lays the blame upon the violent temper of Burke, and more than insinuates that his secession from his party was owing to pecuniary motives. This we cannot believe. In our review of Prior's Life of Burke,* we adverted to his rupture with Fox. Mr Moore's account of the transaction does not contradict that which is there told; but he prudently suppresses the fresh provocation given by Fox in his reply. As to the rupture between Sheridan and Burke, we think it clear, even from Mr Moore's account of the affair, that the first provocation was on the side of Sheridan, who explicitly charges Burke with being "an advocate of despotism." The accusation, that Burke was instigated by pecuniary motives is conveyed

* Vol. II. No. 2, page 50.

in the following paragraph, which seems to us to carry with it its own refutation.

Lastly; to these attractions, of various kinds, with which the cause of thrones was now encircled in the eyes of Burke, must be added one, which, however it may still further disenchant our views of his conversion, cannot wholly be omitted among the inducements to his change,—and this was the strong claim upon the gratitude of government, which his seasonable and powerful advocacy in a crisis so difficult established for him, and which the narrow and embarrassed state of his circumstances rendered an object by no means of secondary importance in his views. Unfortunately,—from a delicate wish, perhaps, that the reward should not appear to come in too close coincidence with the service,—the pension bestowed upon him arrived too late to admit of his deriving much more from it than the obloquy by which it was accompanied.

We had always thought that Burke's circumstances were easy, and that he was far from being avaricious.

Mr Moore also says, that Burke was envious of Sheridan's fame!—envious bacause Sheridan had *supplanted him!* When, where, and how, may we ask, did Sheridan ever supplant Burke? Except on one solitary occasion, Sheridan never excelled him; nor did we know, until now, that any one ventured to compare the two men as statesmen. Burke was thoroughly learned, deeply thoughtful, always prepared; Sheridan was, on the other hand, according to Mr Moore, accustomed to say to his friends, "Here I am—ignorant—instruct me;" and then having gathered with infinite labour, upon the spur of the occasion, his materials, he retired for a few days to compose his speech, which he had the happy art of putting forth as an extemporaneous effusion. We do not think that Mr Moore means to misrepresent; but, as we before remarked, his political prejudices have jaundiced his eyes. Sheridan's fame rests on too firm a basis to need that Burke's reputation, or that of any other man, should be pulled down for its support. The attempt, to say the least of it, was injudicious, and we wonder that even Mr Moore himself should not have seen that it was as hopeless as injudicious. An amusing instance of his wish to exalt Sheridan at the expense of Burke, he has curiously enough left upon record. Mr Moore's style is so diffuse, that we cannot quote the whole of the passage, but we make the following extracts.

Mr Sheridan spoke frequently in the debates on this question [the Regency Question], but his most important agency lay in the

less public business connected with it. He was the confidential adviser of the prince throughout, directed every step he took, and was the author of most of his correspondence on the subject. There is little doubt, I think, that the celebrated and masterly letter to Mr Pitt, which by some persons has been attributed to Burke, and by others to Sir Gilbert Elliot (afterwards Lord Minto), was principally the production of Mr Sheridan. For the supposition that it was written by Burke, there are, besides the merits of the production, but very scanty grounds. * * Indeed the violent state of this extraordinary man's temper, during the whole of the discussions and proceedings on the regency, would have rendered him, even had his intimacy with the prince been closer, an unfit person for the composition of a document, requiring so much caution, temper, and delicacy. * *

I had written thus far on the subject of this letter,—and shall leave what I have written as a memorial of the fallacy of such conjectures,—when, having still some doubts of my correctness in attributing the honour of the composition to Sheridan, I resolved to ask the opinion of my friend, Sir James Mackintosh, a person above all others qualified, by relationship of talent, to recognise and hold parley with the mighty spirit of Burke, in whatever shape the "Royal Dane" may appear. The strong impression on his mind,—amounting almost to certainty,—was that no other hand but that of Burke could have written the greater part of the letter; and by a more diligent inquiry, in which his kindness assisted me, it has been ascertained that his opinion was, as it could not fail to be, correct. The following extract from a letter written by Lord Minto at the time, referring obviously to the surmise, that he was himself the author of the paper, confirms beyond a doubt the fact, that it was written almost solely by Burke:

January 31*st*, 1789.

There was not a word of the prince's letter to Pitt mine. It was originally Burke's, altered a little, but not improved, by Sheridan and other critics. The answer made by the prince yesterday to the address of the two Houses was entirely mine, and done in a great hurry half an hour before it was to be delivered.

In one other instance Mr Moore's party feelings boil over; he is highly indignant at the neglect of Sheridan on the part of the present king of England and his brothers in the latter years of his friend's life; and at the attempt of the king to afford him pecuniary assistance towards the close of his days. Now, considering what were Sheridan's unhappy habits during that period, we cannot see how his former friends of any rank could associate with him, after, as his biographer quaintly expresses it, "the Rubicon of the cup was passed;" and however unfit they might be to award the punishment, we trust that the moral lesson it

affords will not be lost;—that habitual intemperance will cut the most highly gifted man off from society. The assistance which the king proffered seems to have been sufficient for the immediate occasion, but whether it were courteously tendered, we are not enough acquainted with European etiquette to decide.

But to turn from this disagreeable part of our subject; we are happy to say, that there is something new in this book, and something which will have its use. We all of us know that Sheridan was a dunce at school, and that his subsequent and early performances astonished all who knew him. Mr Moore has been put into the possession of documents which unravel the mystery. It seems that, if he did not study much according to rule, he studied intensely in private, and for the particular occasions on which he was to put forth his powers. Mr Moore states, that after his stolen marriage in France, after his duels on account of his wife, and before the solemnization of his marriage in England; at a time, therefore, when his mind must have been kept in a ferment, during a period of about six months' retirement in the country, he wrote an abstract of the History of England, filling a quarto volume of more than a hundred pages, and a collection of remarks upon Sir William Temple's works. These must have been the fruits of very close application; and were probably intended as preparatory to the study of the law, which he shortly afterwards commenced. All his works,—comedies, poems, and speeches on important occasions, were diligently laboured, and written many times over; every thought was put down and tried in every variety of shape, many times kept by him years before he had an opportunity of using it, and only brought forth when and where it would produce the best possible effect. We regard this discovery as of the highest practical use. It shows conclusively what can be obtained by mental labour, and is another proof, of which we cannot have too many, that patient labour is the foundation of genius; that study and thought are not less necessary *now* to make a commanding orator or poet, nor less efficacious in the making of both, than they were in the days of Demosthenes, or of Cicero, or of Virgil. The chapter on the "School for Scandal," we consider the most valuable in this volume, and we recommend it to the attention of those among us, who are considering what they shall do to "make the age to come their own." Sheridan's first attempt at parliamentary eloquence was unhappy; one of his friends told him he had better have stuck to his former pursuits; but he knew better—he persevered, and in a few years afterwards pronounced his

celebrated speech upon the *Begum charge* against Warren Hastings; a speech which at once established his fame as an orator, and of which Burke said, that "it was the most astonishing effort of eloquence, argument, and wit united, of which there was any record or tradition;"—and upon the conclusion of which the House of Commons immediately adjourned, that they might not decide under the influence of the emotions which it had produced. All these speeches are the result of severe private labour and study; they were written beforehand, every oratorical passage being carefully elaborated, and the very exclamations which were to seem as if drawn from the speaker by the impulse of his enthusiasm excited during his speech, marked down, and the places where they were to be introduced particularly noted in the manuscript. Why the orator trusted his fame to the miserable reporters of the day, we know not. We once attempted to read Sheridan's reported speeches; but we gave up the task—there was not even a skeleton preserved. Mr Moore has given us large extracts from the second of them, taken in short hand, and which had been in the possession of Sheridan. These extracts can of course give but a faint idea of the effect of the whole as a speech, and we cannot find room for any of them in our pages.

Of the private life of Sheridan, Mr Moore gives us very little information; his notices of it are scattered through the volume—here a scrap, and there a scrap. Here, again, we prefer the plan of Bishop Tomline's, who gives the public life of his friend in continuity, and reserves his account of his private life for a subsequent volume. After all, perhaps, Mr Moore has done this part of his work as well as could be expected. Boswell's Life of Johnson and Hayley's Life of Cowper have spoiled our relish for ordinary biographies. We suppose all our readers are acquainted with the romantic circumstances of Sheridan's first marriage, and it is gratifying to find that his wife was worthy of all the risks to which he exposed himself for her sake. Mr Moore hints, but does not tell, how the subsequent irregularities and neglect of her husband impaired their domestic happiness. From the account which he gives of her, we fully believe that all her husband's fame in after years could not compensate him for the diminution of her early affection. Her death affected him very painfully. He was equally happy in his second wife, though his misconduct seems to have sometimes produced differences between them. Mr Moore tells us that he was a "famous adept at practical joking," and gives some ludicrous

anecdotes of his horse-play; and, indeed, he appears, until the last unhappy years of his life, to have been of a lively, sportive turn, good-natured, and generous to a fault. Notwithstanding his uniform pecuniary embarrassments, it appears after his death, that his debts amounted only to £5,500. He might, therefore, with common prudence in the care of the property which he possessed, have been rich; but he never disputed a claim, and when some of his friends undertook to investigate his affairs, he insisted that every demand made against him should be allowed, though it was obvious that many of them had been paid more than once. His friends thereupon declined to proceed with their commission, and left him to his own mismanagement.

Of the style in which this book is written, we have a few words to say, and shall then have completed our task. Mr Moore throughout his work reprobates what he calls the Asiatic style of eloquence; nevertheless his own style is embroidered all over with ambitious ornaments. We caution young writers, therefore, to beware how they are caught by its glittering, for to them its false ornaments will be peculiarly dangerous. The following are a few examples which we have selected at random:

Mr Burke and Mr Fox fought side by side—*lavishing at every step the inexhaustible ammunition of their intellect.*

The centre of gravity will be found to lie in that body which contains within it the source of emoluments and honours.

Statesmen can accommodate themselves to the *passing hue* of the treasury bench, as naturally *as the Eastern insect does to the colour of the leaf on which it feeds.*

He had the glory of *opening*, in the very same field, a *new and abundant spring of eloquence*, which, during four days, *diffused its enchantments* among an assembly of the most illustrious persons of the land.

Such far-fetched images and overwrought metaphors occur upon almost every page. We might have made our list much larger, but we must forbear. We have quoted the above merely as specimens of those laborious prettinesses which Mr Moore is constantly writing both in verse and prose, and which bear no sort of resemblance to the true language of poetry or eloquence.

Miscellaneous Poems, selected from the United States Literary Gazette. Boston. 1825. 12mo. pp. 174.

We shall be pardoned for contemplating this little volume with a good deal of complacency. Never, indeed,

> ..... can he whose mind
> Joys in the Muses, hold from that delight,
> When nature and his full thoughts bid him write.

And we think that proofs are here offered of an inspiration, which could not easily have been repressed. Yet we give place to the pleasing belief, that we may have been the moving cause of many of these performances, and we certainly have had the privilege of first presenting their claims to admiration.

We shall incur, we trust, no censure, if we express the opinion, that a better collection of specimens of American poetry has never issued from the press. The names of the contributors sufficiently authorize the assertion. In no other similar American volume will there be found so much deep feeling, contemplative reasoning, pathetic narration, or beautiful poetical language. The relation in which we stand to most of the writers, and the hope which we have of continuing to lay before our readers their occasional productions, makes it improper for us to analyze the character of individual pieces. Yet we may at least pay our tribute to the progress of the art; and we can already observe the great characteristics of it as exercised among us. While observing the form of our own hills, in the midst of our romantic valleys, in the bosom of our own simple forms of society, the mind of the American poet becomes matured with legendary knowledge, his sympathies with human nature are exercised and find a voice, and his eye is taught to discern and his heart to cherish the beauties of nature. He never dreamt upon Parnassus, nor tasted of Helicon, but he tells us of things which were never listened to in the lands of classic fame, the solemn truths of a spiritual religion, the high tenets of a pure, uncompromising, self-denying morality. He has his favourite places of association, and connects with natural scenes, if it cannot be the recollections of mighty deeds, the elevated thoughts and glorious aspirations to which the favoured mind is raised by the influence of the external creation.

And this leads us to observe of the present volume, that its vein is entirely pure and good. It addresses itself to the best feelings of humanity. It furnishes proof of the correct moral

standard, which the American public, or American authors, or rather both acting in concert, have established. May it never be otherwise. Never be our literature increased by works of profligacy. Never be it attempted to gain the imagination by sensual descriptions, or to turn plain goodness into ridicule. Never be the principle admitted among us, that beauty may be pursued in a literary work without regard to moral influence. Indeed beauty has no real existence, independent of morality. Good taste rejects all that is low and licentious;

Virtue is never wounded but it suffers.

Another and a prominent characteristic of this volume is the fondness for nature, which animates many of the finest poems. Her power over the mind in all its moods, her eternal youth in the midst of decay, her glory at sunrise among the mountains, her splendor amid the ruins of the ancient world, her wild attractions in our own uncultivated interior, are all by turns presented to us through the power of verse. We are glad to escape from common cares, and share for a season the feelings of the poet; we are glad to have him admit us to the visions, which otherwise might never have been revealed to us. Yet there is, perhaps, rather too much of descriptive poetry in this volume, or rather description is not sufficiently relieved by pictures of men and actions. Descriptive poetry in itself can never interest very deeply, or leave very lasting impressions. The moral affections must be portrayed, and human interests awakened. The painters were well aware of this. There does not exist, as far as we have heard, a single eminent landscape, that is not animated by life. The great landscape-painters, it is true, were not always eminent for drawing human figures well; yet they felt the necessity of introducing a moral interest in their pictures. Thus, in one of Claude's, we have the Jewish nation at its sacrifices; in another, Cleopatra in the moment of her greatest splendor. Poussin succeeded most perfectly in uniting these two sources of interest, existing in natural beauty and moral action. His picture of Diogenes throwing away his cup, is an example; as also of the Israelites suffering in the desert. But the greatest specimen of this united interest, and one of the first specimens of the art of painting, is his Deluge; all the horrors of that event are collected in the midst of terrific scenery; the rain, the rising of the waters, the death of man and beast; a solitary serpent of immense size has already been a victim; but on one side a mother, who has no hope for herself, endeavours to save her

child by raising him up, till he may be reached by persons on a higher cliff. The effect of this simple incident is beyond expression. It gives a moral interest and dignity to the whole picture, and all the appalling imagery of that gloomy period is of less interest than this exhibition of a love, which many waters could not quench, nor the floods drown. The poets who are most admired are full of instructive lessons on these points. There are no descriptions in Milton except to advance the story. In Comus, perhaps, we have the most of rhetorical display; yet here all the descriptions serve only to render the situation of the lady more plain to us, and more interesting. If Tasso describes at large the enchanted gardens of pleasure, it is only because Rinaldo is held in chains there; and the retirement of the forest is sketched in an early canto only to show the safety of Erminia's retreat. We dwell on this point, because we think some of the authors in this volume are too fond of amplifying descriptions of nature, and are unmindful, that the pictures which they draw lose much of their beauty, and still more of their interest, for the want of moral life, and a charm drawn from the fate of human beings. The sun itself would lose its poetical interest, did it not shine on the just and the unjust; and the most gorgeous livery of the clouds would not fix attention but as they are the objects of admiration to moral beings, and connect their splendor with life. It is the business of natural history to give pictures of nature as she is; the poet communes with fine scenery to people it with the creations of his own mind, and to lend it all the interest, which the fictions of his imagination can bestow upon it.

It is pleasant to observe in the present volume the rivals of poetical fame uniting for a common purpose. Much has been written of the power of death to allay jealousies, and to bring together, in peace, the candidates for fame. But here we have what is vastly better; men, on whom the country has bestowed praise, joining together to advance the literary character of their country, without jealousy, without division, in the health of life and the highest exercise of their powers, co-operating in what seems to them a laudable end. Some of these are men, who can only spare a portion of their time for the culture of letters; but it is to their honour, that they have not been forgetful, that that little is well employed in efforts to promote the rising literature of the country; and, although the highest honours in letters can hardly be won except by those who dedicate their whole minds to the sacred service, it is still plain, that in our present state, it is the duty of all who have been intro-

duced to the pleasures of learning and taste, to labour in diffusing them as widely as possible. It is a cause in which they should be instant in season and out of season; and if there are any who can devote themselves to it entirely, it is worthy of their best years and most persevering efforts. We repeat, that we see with pleasure in the present volume marks of co-operation, of united exertion for the advancement of literature; for while the number of our literary men continues so small, as the present demand for active talents must make it, great effects cannot be produced but by united efforts, and improvements can be diffused through the land only by sacrificing all personal and local feelings to the general object. If there are but few, who give themselves to letters, they must be like lights in friendly watch-towers, giving signals to one another of what passes, and rapidly diffusing all intelligence of universal interest.

We have the best hopes for the future. The last six years have witnessed an entire revolution in American literature. We now read American books, and are proud of our American authors. The traditions of our country are embodied in interesting narrations; the materials for history are rapidly collecting; and while one philosophic mind from the banks of the Detroit is instructing us on the character of the natives of America, and throwing light on many points of criticism and history, which before had been under a cloud, the beautiful genius of another leads the imagination to wander by the waters of the Huron, and awakens the best sentiments of compassionate admiration in behalf of the faithful Indian girl, who was true to her Christian love, and true to the Christian's God. In our own volume,—we feel it to be ours by so many ties, that we cannot, and would not conceal our affection for it,—the lover of traditionary lore will find several tales to delight him. We have purposely abstained from designating particular pieces as favourites; and we dare not trust ourselves with an analysis of the merits of the several contributors. We will close this notice with expressing the hope, that this selection from our former numbers may be widely interesting to the public, and that we may also hereafter have it in our power to offer a rich variety of the productions of our native Muse.

A Historical Sketch of the Formation of the Confederacy, particularly with reference to the Provincial Limits and the Jurisdiction of the General Government over Indian Tribes and the Public Territory. By JOSEPH BLUNT. New York. 1825. 8vo. pp. 116.

OUR acknowledgments are due to Mr Blunt for his instructive compilation of facts and documents relating to the public territory of the United States. The subject has of late arisen to consequence, and become invested with much interest, by reason of the late movements of the state of Georgia, and the lofty language holden by its Chief Magistrate. The government of the United States have been loudly accused of ambitious aggression upon the sovereignty of an individual member of the Confederacy, and of a disposition to extend their jurisdiction beyond its legal boundaries. It is a main purpose of the work before us to vindicate the nation from this grave charge, and to show, that, so far from having exhibited any tendency to usurp dominion, or to press hard upon the rights of Georgia, the Confederacy has uniformly acted, not merely with ordinary comity, but with great tenderness towards those states, with whose territorial pretensions its own have chanced to come in conflict.

We recommend the Historical Sketch to the consideration of all, who desire to obtain a full understanding of the controversy respecting the Creek treaty, a subject so nearly concerning the political welfare and the integrity of the Union. It is compiled with industry and apparent fidelity; and is replete with valuable information collected from a variety of authentic sources. We think it would exert a more salutary influence, if the mass of matter were applied distinctly to the argument, and the argument more pointedly pursued. The work is now a repository of the facts bearing upon certain points; but if more discrimination had been exercised in selecting and in presenting these facts, they would, we apprehend, have produced a more decided impression upon the public mind. But where there is so much to approve, we will not complain because there is no more. Our limits forbid us to follow the author through the work, inasmuch as it begins with the first discovery of the country, and deduces the title of the various occupants of the territory down to the establishment of our independence. But in our perusal of it, some few things have particularly fixed our attention; and to these we must allude, though but briefly.

In passing the eye over the early charters, it is impossible not to be struck with the extreme vagueness and uncertainty of the colony charters, and the loose description of boundaries which the general ignorance of American geography occasioned. The extension of the grant in some cases across the continent to the Pacific is remarkable, because it was a territory of which Europeans were then profoundly ignorant, and which the English had no legal right to claim, even according as such rights were then construed. The history of the country is full of controversies between the different colonies concerning limits, many of which it was exceedingly difficult to adjust. Oftentimes when they were settled, the rules of construction adopted were so arbitrary, as to leave much room for future cavil and complaint. No better illustration of these remarks need be adduced than the description of a single boundary line of the Massachusetts grant. The southern boundary of this colony, as described in its charter, was a line drawn three miles south of the river Charles, "or of any or every part thereof;" and the northern boundary was a line drawn in like manner three miles north of the river Merrimac, "or to the northward of any or every part thereof;" and the grant covered all the lands between these limits, and from the Atlantic on the eastern part westward to the Pacific. Now what idea could the grantors have had of the geography of this continent? Could they have imagined that the Merrimac and Charles extended inland to the South Sea? Or that these rivers each held a due westerly course? Or that they continued to flow in precisely the same direction in the interior that they did on the seaboard? If they knew how the general fact was,—knew what it would seem the most superficial knowledge of geography should have taught them, it is still more difficult to account for their conduct. The vast extent of the continent towards the west was a fact well ascertained, because the Spanish had explored the farther side of it. A river which ran thousands of miles, without materially changing its course in any part of it, would have been a strange anomaly. And a river which emptied itself into the ocean on one side of a vast continent, and had its origin in the ocean on the other, would have been still more extraordinary. So that it appears hardly possible to explain, by any satisfactory hypothesis, how such excessive vagueness came to be admitted into the description of a grant of this immense magnitude. When the new charter was granted to Massachusetts by William and Mary, a little more accuracy of description was attempted, but hardly with better success,—by reason of which

it is well known a controversy is still pending between Massachusetts and New Hampshire in regard to their common boundary. Copious examples of this, and of other things of a like nature, which are chiefly interesting as matters of historical and antiquarian curiosity, may be seen in Mr Blunt's Sketch.

In regarding the territorial history of the country since the revolution, a question of great consequence arises as to the limitations under which the United States succeed to certain prerogatives of the king of Great Britain. Many of his personal rights as king, and many of his royal signories have undoubtedly been devolved on the Union, by the constitution. Examples of this occur in the authority of Congress to regulate commerce; to coin money; to establish post offices and post roads; to punish crimes committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations; to declare war, including its consequences, of granting letters of marque, ordaining prize law, raising armies, maintaining a navy, and the like. Similar examples are found in the power of the executive in making treaties and appointing foreign ambassadors. For all these cases there is express provision in the constitution, and of course no difficulty exists in determining the jurisdiction of the nation relative thereto, except such ordinary difficulty as may arise in ascertaining the true construction of the particular sections of the constitution. But questions of much delicacy and niceness meet us in seeking to determine the extent and qualifications of the jurisdiction of the United States over lands within the limits of individual states, but occupied by independent tribes of Indians. We shall not enter into the discussion of it here, nor will we venture to express a belief, without fuller explanation than our limits would permit. We merely suggest the subject for consideration, as being one, relative to which many important facts are collected in the work before us; which we, therefore, recommend to the public attention.

MISCELLANY.

THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

XIX. EXCHANGE ON ENGLAND.

In our foreign commerce, Great Britain takes from us only certain commodities, the produce of our soil, and such only as she cannot produce from her own. We take from her all kinds of commodities, whether of her soil or of her manufacture, and such as we might produce from our own industry. Of these, we take from her to the amount of several millions of dollars more than the products amount to, which she takes from us.

The nations of the continent of Europe take from us not only the kinds of commodities which Great Britain takes, but they also take other commodities, the surplus of our imports from the West and East Indies, South America, Africa, &c., to the amount of several millions of dollars more than what we take from them is worth. This balance in our favour, of several millions of dollars, from our trade with these nations, we receive in money from them, which we remit to Great Britain to pay her the balance against us, of several millions of dollars, arising out of our trade with her. This money, together with the proceeds of our exports to Great Britain, is there placed to the credit of the American exporter.

The American exporter thus has money in England, which he wants to employ in this country. On the other hand, the American importer of English goods has money in this country, which he wants to employ in England. Now if the want between these should be equal, of the exporter who has his money abroad to use it at home, and of the importer who has his money at home to use it abroad, as many dollars will be given in America for a bill in pounds sterling on England, as that bill will purchase of dollars in England. The *value* of exchange will vary a little from this, according as the want on one side or the other may be more or less, to have money at home which is abroad, or to have money abroad which is at home; but it cannot vary to exceed the cost of transporting the money, which, in a state of peace, including insurance is less than two per cent. The reason that the *rate* of exchange on England is at times so much above par, is, that the pound sterling in England will purchase more dollars there at such times, than what we estimate the par value of it in dollars to be in America.

As much per cent. as the rate of exchange, with which British goods are purchased, is above par, so much per cent. does the

public revenue lose, on the amount of *ad valorem* duties, which these goods should pay on their importation. When exchange is ten per cent. advance, for eleven hundred dollars laid out in England for goods, *ad valorem* duties on a thousand only are paid upon their importation, which causes a loss to the revenue of an eleventh part of the duty as rated by the tariff. But on the other hand, when exchange is at a discount, the public revenue gains in the same proportion in the *ad valorem* duties paid on imports from England. It makes no sensible difference to the importer in the cost of his goods in England, whether exchange be ten per cent. advance above par, or ten per cent. discount below par. He gets for a thousand dollars, first laid out in a bill on England, and this then laid out in the purchase of goods there, the same quantity of goods on an average, let the rate of exchange be as it may. The great differences in the rate of exchange on England beyond the expense of transporting specie, which from time to time arise, are caused, therefore, by the fluctuations in the value of British currency. The pound sterling will not, in Great Britain, purchase two thirds of the gold or silver or British goods at one time, which it will at another time. It is by the quantity of gold or silver, which the pound sterling will purchase in Great Britain, and by taking into the calculation the expense of transporting gold or silver either way, according as the demand for money may be, that we determine the value in dollars of a bill of exchange in pounds sterling on England.

XX. COTTON CULTURE.

The cotton culture is a very productive and rapidly increasing branch of agricultural industry. It furnishes a material for manufacture, which, beside supplying the home demand, constitutes a third or more of our whole domestic export. It employs a large portion of our navigation, foreign and coastwise, in its transportation, and gives extensive employment to commercial capital and agency. The increasing demand for it is owing mostly to the great improvements made in the machinery employed in its manufacture, which, by enabling the goods to be sold at so cheap a rate, has greatly increased their consumption, and caused them to supersede in many instances the use of linen and woollen.

The foreign manufacturer, as mentioned in a previous article, works up the cotton of all other nations, whereas the home manufacturer works up only that of domestic growth. The reason of this difference is, that the home market is secured to the home cultivator, by a protecting duty sufficient to exclude foreign cottons. Otherwise our manufacturers would find it as much for their interest to use the cottons produced in foreign countries, as the foreign manufacturer finds it for his, and they would be imported

accordingly. But as the home market is also secured, or nearly secured, by the same means to the home manufacturer, there is a reciprocity of advantage in contributing to each other's protection against foreign competition. As the home manufacturer uses double the quantity of cotton of our growth, that the foreign manufacturer does in making the same quantity of goods, the increase of the home manufacture affords double the encouragement to the home cultivator, that the same increase in the foreign manufacture would afford. In consuming cotton goods of foreign manufacture, we encourage the cultivator of foreign cotton, as much as we do our own; whereas in consuming cotton goods of domestic manufacture we encourage only our own culture. The domestic cotton goods are now articles of considerable exportation; and as they are wholly of our cotton, while foreign cotton goods are made of cotton whereof ours composes but half, the more our goods supplant the foreign in other foreign markets, the more will our culture of cotton be promoted.

XXI. INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT.

Internal improvement made to facilitate intercourse, operates through all the various interests of society, in the augmentation of national wealth. In its primary operation it removes obstructions to the interchange of commodities, and causes labour and capital to be turned from transportation to be employed in production. In reducing the expenses of transportation, it increases national industry, and renders it more productive of both quantity and value in all its branches. By the removal of obstructions to intercourse, it brings the various branches of industry nearer to each other; and the nearer they are brought, the more they promote each other's interests, and the interests of the whole community; for the nearer they are, the more is saved in transport between them; and what is saved in transport is so much gained, and equally shared between producer and consumer. It raises the value of lands within the sphere of its influence, in proportion as it increases the value of their produce. It augments the circulating capital to the amount of the additional quantity of produce, which through its means becomes an object of transport. It increases the products of agricultural industry, and it increases the products of other branches of industry to be exchanged for them. It increases commerce, by increasing the quantity of products to be transported and distributed by it. And though internal improvement is thus operative in the promotion of industry and the general increase of wealth, the work itself, in which the improvement consists, is executed without the reduction of capital.

The money employed for the payment of labour merely changes hands, and remains in the community to the same amount it

would have done, had not the labour been so employed; and as for the necessary consumption of the labourer, that is the same that it would have been, had he been idle. The labour employed in this way is not to the diminution of production in any branch of industry. It is chiefly taken from the surplus hands attached to agriculture. It is estimated that one third of the population of a country engaged in agriculture can produce enough for the consumption of the whole. In this country more than eight tenths belong to this class, whereas less than half of our population could produce an abundant supply both for home and foreign consumption. Therefore, to employ the surplus hands in other occupations, or in works of public or private utility, would be a gain to the community to the whole amount of the value of their labour.

H. C.

REMARKS ON PRONUNCIATION.

The importance of more uniformity in the pronunciation of the English language has been long felt and acknowledged; and within the last half century has received the attention of several English writers of distinguished ability.

Dr Wallis, about the middle of the last century, devoted himself so diligently and successfully to this subject, that Mr Nares calls him "the father of English philology." Among his successors, Walker speaks of Mr Elphinstone, as having "reduced the chaos of pronunciation to a system." Much of his labour was lost, however, on the visionary plan of forming a perfect alphabet, and the still more visionary plan of conforming the orthography of the language to the pronunciation.

The idea of "a pronouncing dictionary" seems to have been first conceived by Dr Kenrick, who divided the words into syllables, and marked the vowel sounds by figures. Mr Sheridan improved this plan by spelling the syllables as they are pronounced. The treatise of Mr Nares, which followed Sheridan's work, reduced the principles of orthoepy to a more scientific order than they had previously attained; and Walker by combining the labours of Kenrick, Sheridan, and Nares, and adding references from all doubtful or difficult words to the principles which regulated their pronunciation, seems to have produced the plan of a perfect pronouncing dictionary.

In the execution of their respective plans, Dr Kenrick did not conform sufficiently to the court and the stage, to be popular there; whilst, on the other hand, Sheridan introduced so many of the

stage peculiarities, that the body of the people rejected him. Walker took a middle course in this respect, and by uniting with a more thorough investigation of the principles of orthoepy many judicious critical remarks, succeeded far better than any of his predecessors.

The dictionary of Dr Jones next appeared, in which many things which Walker had censured in Sheridan were defended, and Walker, in his turn, was censured. About the same time, our own ingenious countryman, Mr Webster, attacked the whole business of establishing a standard of pronunciation, and particularly the system of Walker, with much zeal, and not a little severity. He considered unformity of pronunciation neither possible nor desirable, adopting the maxim of Johnson, that the best pronunciation was that most conformed to the orthography; than which scarcely any thing could be farther from truth. He predicted that Jones's Dictionary would supersede Walker's in England, as Walker's had Sheridan's and Kenrick's, and that the next twenty years would produce as many different standards as the last had done. He was also an advocate for the truly republican plan of establishing an *American* pronunciation of the English language, which he supposed would eventually become the prevailing pronunciation.

The twenty years, however, have passed, without fulfilling his prediction. The dictionary of Jones proved as unsuccessful a competitor with Walker's in England, as Webster's did in America; nor has any subsequent effort worthy of notice been made to supplant Walker, whilst his work has been multipled by thousands and tens of thousands in this country and in England.

The public have decided that a standard in orthoepy is no more impracticable than in grammar or orthography, and have awarded to Walker nearly the same place in the former which Murray and Johnson hold in the latter. The literati of this country have decided that it consists perfectly with our independence to adopt the English standards of orthoepy as well as of philology; and no man, who would preserve his reputation as a scholar, is any more at liberty to justify an incorrect pronunciation, by denying the existence or authority of a standard, than he is to justify incorrect grammar or orthography in the same way.

This department of our language, though the one in which inaccuracy is most sure to be exposed, has received, hitherto, very little attention from our literary men. The talents of Mr Pickering have been called forth to preserve the purity of our language from the encroachments of *Americanisms*, and most of our periodical works, which possess any literary merit or influence, have, as occasion required, lent a helping hand to this laudable object; while, on the subject of pronunciation, nothing that has come to

my knowledge has ever been done,* though there is a general agreement among the learned that something is needed. It is not the object of these remarks to supply this acknowledged deficiency, but to point out some of the more obvious defects in Walker as a standard *for us*, and some of the principal inaccuracies in orthoepy which obtain among many of our more correct speakers. I am aware of the difficulty of establishing exceptions to an acknowledged standard; still as no one, perhaps, claims perfection for Walker's standard, and as those who adopt it, all agree in departing from it in some cases, it seems desirable that these departures should, if possible, be reduced to some rules.

1. We ought not to follow Walker when he gives a pronunciation as an exception, which common usage among us has conformed to his rules.

Examples of this kind are, *quirrister* for *chorister*, *cow-cumber* for *cucumber; Room* for *Rome; re-son* for *raisin; clark* and *sargent* for *clerk* and *sergeant*, &c. In these, and similar cases, the pronunciation which prevails among us is right, in the estimation of Walker himself, and to exchange it for a wrong one because men in Great Britain have done so, would be altogether ridiculous.

2. When he confounds sounds that are distinct among us.

The sound of the diphthong *ai* as heard in the words *hair, fair, pear, declare*, &c., and which is in strictness the long sound of *a* corresponding to the short one in *hat, man*, &c., Walker tells us, is "exactly the same as the slender sound of *a* in *lade, pain*," which corresponds to the sound of short *e* in *led, pen*, &c. (Prin. No. 73, 202.)

Mr Nares remarks of this vowel sound, that it is entirely lost in use, and does not exist now in the language, except in the monosyllable *aye*. "This is the more to be lamented," adds this judicious writer, "as it is a rich and masculine sound, which could not fail to give strength and energy to our language, as appears from the effect of it in the Latin and Greek languages, in pronouncing which we do retain it." Now this "rich and masculine sound," which Walker does not even notice, is almost universally preserved in use, on this side of the Atlantic, in nearly, if not quite every case where the first, or slender sound of *a* in Walker's notation is followed by *r*, in the same syllable, or by a vowel; as *care, there, bear, fair, hair, prayer, Isaiah;* to all which Walker gives the sound of *a* in *hate*. I have been told by well educated English-

* At a meeting of delegates from the Colleges held several years since in Boston, this subject was committed to a gentleman eminently qualified to do it the justice, Rev. Dr Porter of Andover, who partially prepared a manuscript for the press. The failure of his health obliged him to relinquish the task, and from the pressure of professional duties and his still feeble state of health, it has never been resumed.

men, that correct speakers in Great Britain do not follow Walker in this respect; but, be this as it may, there is a pretty numerous class of words like those I have mentioned, in which the proper long sound of *a*, or *ai*, as in *hair*, is distinctly and uniformly heard in this country, except when a servile conformity to Walker has triumphed over the correct habits and the good sense of individuals; and any attempt to expel this sound from our language should be reprobated by every friend to correct speaking.

3. When he contravenes his own principles.

I do not mean that, when his principles and his notation are inconsistent, we are always to reject the notation and follow the principles; though this would be safe for a general rule, as he would be less likely to err in settling principles, than in applying them so variously as he was obliged to; but that whenever common usage conforms to his principles, we ought not to alter that usage to conform to his notation.

He tells us (Prin. 463) that *t* before long *u*, preceded by the accent, becomes *sh*, *tch*, or *tsh*, and instances in the words *signatshure*, *ligatshure*, *forfeitshure*; yet in his notation he gives to two of these words, and to some others in the same predicament, the simple sound of *t*; *signa-ture*, *liga-ture*, &c., whilst in *forfeit-ure*, *feat-ure*, and many others, he conforms to his rule.

A similar case occurs (Prin. 176) where he says, *u* long, after *r* in the same syllable, is pronounced exactly as if written *oo*, yet his notation gives *protrewd* and *protroosion*. In both these cases propriety manifestly requires uniformity in the sound of the letters specified, and there seems to be no reason for departing from his rule, especially as it accords entirely with the best usage in our country.

The most remarkable, and by far the most important defect in Walker, on the score of inconsistency, is found in his treatment of the syllables *tion*, *sion*, *tial*, *cial*, *tian*, *cious*, *dious*, &c., which in his notation, he makes sometimes one syllable, and sometimes two. It is not true, that Walker, as Webster affirms, "mistakes the principles on which these terminations are formed," for in his *Principles* he always treats them as *one syllable*. Nor does it make the least difference whether we say with Webster, that *ti* and *ci* becomes *sh* before *on*, *al*, &c., or with Walker, that "*t* and *c* become *sh*, before *ion*, *ial*, &c., and that the vowels form but one syllable;" so long as both agree that *tion* becomes *shun*; *cial*, *shal*; *tiate*, *shate*, &c. (Prin. 272, 291, 357, 459, 461, 463.)

To the rule which makes these terminations a single syllable, the *Principles* of Walker contain no exceptions, yet with a manifest, and most reprehensible inconsistency, he divides these in his notation of many words, whilst in others he conforms to his rules. Thus, we have *pro-vin-shal* and *pro-vin-she-ate*; *so-shal-ness* and

so-she-a-ble; an-shent-ly and *tran-she-ent-ly; pru-den-shal* and *pru-den-she-ality; con-dish-on-ally* and *con-dish-e-on-ality; con-dish-on-ary* and *con-dish-e-on-ate; o-shun* and *o-she-an-ic; krist-yan, krist-yan-ize*, and *kris-tche-anity*. A striking instance of Walker's inconsistency on this point occurs in his remarks under the word *Pronunciation*. "The very same reasons," he says, "which oblige us to pronounce *partiality, propitiation, especially*, &c. as if written *parsheality, propisheation, espesheally*, &c. oblige us to pronounce *pronunciation* as if written *pronunsheation;*" yet in his notation of these three words, where "the very same reasons" operate, he in two of them divides the diphthong, and in the other (*es-pesh-ally*) makes it but one syllable, according to his rule.

Now nothing is clearer, than that the "same reasons" in orthoepy, as in every thing else, should lead to the same results. And I think it equally clear, that the *principles* of Walker in these cases, which agree perfectly with those of Sheridan and Webster in making the terminations in question single syllables, are correct; and that his notation, wherever he divides these syllables, should be uniformly rejected, as it is, with the exception of a very few words, by most good speakers in this country.

4. Where he admits in his notation different sounds to a word, but gives the preference to one which is not prevalent among correct speakers.

An instance in point occurs in the verb to *pour*, which he says, (Prin. 316) is sometimes pronounced *pore*, sometimes *poor*, and sometimes *power*, yet his notation gives a decided preference to the last sound. Mr Nares gives only the first, and good usage among us, I think, invariably gives the same, and doubtless ought to preserve it. A case in some respects similar occurs in the words *rout* (a road), *tour*, and *wound* (to hurt), with their compounds. Good usage among us is divided on these words. In our Southern states the French sound *root, toor, woond*, &c. prevails pretty generally, whilst in New England the proper English pronunciation, as in *stout, pound*, &c. is as generally preserved. Walker remarks of the French sound of the vowels, that they are the prevailing sounds in the polite world, but adds, "I am, however, of Mr Nares's opinion, who says that this pronunciation ought to be entirely banished. But where is the man bold enough to risk the imputation of vulgarity by such an expulsion?" This "expulsion," which seemed to Walker and Nares so desirable, and which must seem so to every correct English ear, may be effected in this country by preserving the good habits of our fathers.

There is a considerable class of words which may be ranked under this head, where the notation of Walker, in conformity to that "jus et norma loquendi," popular usage, accents the first syllable, though he at the same time protests against the innovation.

Cómmendable, *ácceptableness*, *réceptacle*, *péremptorily*, &c. are examples of this kind. Popular usage in this country does not require a man to risk the dislocation of his jaws by uttering words in this manner, and an attempt to conform to this pronunciation would be in no sense desirable.

There are some cases not comprehended under either of the foregoing heads, in which correct speakers among us generally depart from Walker's notation, and should, I think, continue to do so. A few of these cases may be mentioned.

The dipthong *oo*, according to Walker, has its short sound corresponding to *u* in *bull*, only in the following words, *wool*, *wood*, *good*, *hood*, *foot*, *stood*, *understood*, *withstood;* whereas by the best speakers among us, it is given to a much larger number. There is a manifest difference between the sound which we invariably give to *oo* in *book*, *look*, *soon*, &c. and that which we give to the same vowel in *boot*, *loon*, *moon*, &c. though Walker marks the former just like the latter. On the other hand the distinction which he makes between the sound of *a* in *master*, and in *mastiff*, *mast*, *mastless*, &c. is not recognised generally by correct speakers, and is founded merely in caprice.

There are also several words which occur frequently and almost exclusively in Scripture, which have uniformly in our country been pronounced differently from Walker's notation, when, though correct analogy is doubtless on his side, the reasons against following him, seem to me to outweigh those in favour of it. Instances of this are *Magdale-ne* for *Magdalen*, and *ye* for *yea*. The common pronunciation of these words has been uniform among the sons of the Pilgrims, if not among their progenitors, and is associated with so many feelings of veneration for Scripture phrases, that whilst it continues the *common* pronunciation, ministers, at least, ought not to depart from it for the mere sake of orthoepy. *Ye* for *ya*, is liable to the still further objection, that it frequently obscures the sense. Instances of this occur in the following passages, among many others. "*Ye*, hath God said ye shall not eat?" "*Ye;* have ye never read," &c. "*Ye*, doubtless, and I count all things but loss for the excellency of the knowledge of Christ Jesus." "*Ye*, and all that will live godly shall suffer persecution." (*Gen.* iii. 1; *Matt.* xxi. 16; *Phill.* iii. 16; 2 *Tim.* iii. 12.)

The adverb *yea* at the beginning of each of these sentences is not distinguished from the pronoun *ye* by a *hearer*, if the same sound is given it, as either of them would make good grammar and complete sense in the connexion. The words of this description are not numerous, and it seems far better to let them go down to posterity as they came to us, than to attempt reducing them to rule at the expense of so much convenience, and with the hope of so little benefit.

It is perhaps worthy of remark here, that in some parts of our country, where Walker is acknowledged as the standard, an affectation of great accuracy, united with ignorance of his rules, has introduced some of the most exceptionable of Sheridan's pronunciations. *Cheusday* for *Tuesday*, *rectichude*, *gratichude*, &c. are of this class. *Juty* for *duty*, *chune* and *chutor* for *tune* and *tutor* are still more exceptionable; and *Jeity* for *Deity*, *jews* for *dews*, &c. which I have sometimes heard from these exquisites in pronunciation, are unpardonable. There is a kind of literary dandyism which prevails on this subject, among superficial scholars, in some parts of our country, which cannot be too strongly reprobated by men of sense who wish to promote accuracy of pronunciation.

I cannot leave this part of my subject without expressing my conviction, that it has received less attention from our literary men than it deserves. A standard of orthoepy is important in all languages, but especially so in ours, where the orthography is so far from guiding us to the true sound of words, that Dr Jones and Dr Watts in their treatises on orthography, laid it down as a maxim, that all words which could be sounded different ways must be spelled according to that sound *most diverse* from the true one. A maxim at least as true as that of Dr Johnson which Webster cites, to prove that "the best pronunciation is that most conformed to the orthography."

Another reason, which gives importance to the *correctness* of our standard, is, that the English language is extending rapidly over the world. The day is not far distant when it will be spoken by more people than any other language on earth, and more generally than any language has been since the confusion of tongues on the plains of Shinar. The necessity of a standard of pronunciation as well as of orthography, to preserve our classics for the use of these millions, may be seen by referring to almost any page in Chaucer, or his contemporaries; it may be seen even in Shakspeare. When Falstaff in King Henry IV. is urged by Poins to give reasons for his ridiculous falsehoods, he replies, "Give you a reason on compulsion! If reasons (raisins) were as plenty as blackberries, I would give no man a reason on compulsion." Again, in Julius Cæsar, Cassius, speaking of Rome, says,

> Now it is Rome indeed, and room enough,
> When there is in it but one only man.

The wit of the poet is here exhibited in a play upon the sound of the words *reason* and *raisin* in one case, and *Rome* and *room* in the other; and requires that they should be sounded just alike. The change which has taken place in the sound of the words *Rome* and *raisin*, has been utter destruction to the puns.

So great was Walker's veneration for Shakspeare, that, in defiance of all analogy, he pronounces these words just as Shakspeare did, whilst among us, *Room* for *Rome* is justly considered a pedantic imitation of one of Walker's faults; and if a man should inquire any where in New England for a pound of *re-sins*,* he would be thought to want sense.

Many other reasons might be urged, to show the claims which this subject has on the attention of our literary men. Walker is doubtless the basis on which our permanent standard of orthoepy must rest; but his principles, and especially his notation, need some emendation. This emendation may now be made; and if some man, who has leisure and abilities to devote to it, will accomplish as much in the department of orthoepy as Mr Pickering has done in the use of words, he will render an essential service to the men of future generations, as well as to those now on the stage.

My design was to add some remarks on a few of the most prominent inaccuracies in pronunciation which obtain generally among us, but having already far transcended my proposed limits, I must defer that part for the present.

XANTHUS.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

REFORMED TOM BELL.

I NEVER knew a man profaner
Than him they call reformed Tom Bell;
Or one who more became a gainer
In worldly goods by arts of hell.
He cheated all, but most affected
Those easiest ruined by his guile;
If he but found one unprotected,
Few were his years and brief his smile.

His father, mother died of sorrow
Brought on by his unkind career;
His wives, one, two, three, could not borrow
Of nuptial life, a single year.
And many a maiden, fondly trusting,
Heard in his vow her funeral knell;
And many an orphan with heart bursting,
Asked Heaven for vengeance on Tom Bell.

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* This pronunciation of the word *raisins* is frequently heard in some of our Middle and Southern states.

And as for orisons and preaching
In the bright temple where man soars,
Tom would be sooner seen beseeching
For entrance at a wanton's doors.
He held religion "a mere bubble,
An idle tale made by the priest;
Got up to gull with little trouble
The loving fools who would be fleeced."

And thus Tom Bell went on despising
Religion, virtue, God, and good;
He cared not, so his wealth kept rising,
How other debts and credits stood.
He came to thirty, vile as ever,
One, two were added, half a third,
When lo! Tom Bell, the unbeliever,
Became a lover of the Word.

It was a night in cold November,
Five days or more before its close,
When shrill-voiced winds the oaks dismember,
And hazy clouds foretell the snows;
When beasts go to their coverts creeping,
When birds of passage seek mild skies,
When the rough waves the cliffs are sweeping,
There stood a form before his eyes.

He sat, that awful moment, resting
Upon a bank of leafless firs,
Watching to see a soft form breasting
The chilly night-wind, even hers.
When all at once as he sits gazing,
He feels the air grow deadly cold;
And he beholds a tall form raising
Itself from out the frozen mould.

Its dress was white, damp grave-clothes flowing
All heavily upon the gale;
Its eyes no more with life were glowing,
Its brow was ghastly, and cheek pale.
It bent itself, that cold corse, o'er him,
Upon his shoulder laid its hand;
With this thing from the tombs before him
All shuddering did the sinner stand.

And when it spoke, its tones were hollow;—
"What dost thou here, this chilly night?
Why, base seducer, dost thou follow
A gentle girl, to work her blight?

I perished by thy base pursuing,
Does not thy soul my secret tell?
The earliest victim of thy wooing—
Thou know'st me now, lost Isabel.

I come, bad man, to give thee warning,
Thy sins cry out, and Justice hears;
Nor would'st thou see another morning,
Did not fair Mercy plead with tears.
But, oh! her voice is growing weaker,
Her pleas are by thy sinnings crost,
She blushes to become the seeker
For grace on thee—she deems thee lost.

If by the time that morn discovers
Her yellow light to the brown hills,
No angel guardian o'er thee hovers,
No other spirit thy frame fills,
Thou shalt lie low; and ere the going
Of the bright sun adown the West,
By him that said it—the All-knowing,
Thou shalt be gone, but not to rest."

'T is hushed; he looks with horror round him;
There 's but himself with life that stirs;
One groan, and the next moment found him
Lying low beneath the nodding firs.
And then, while the cold moon was shedding
Her silver light on the brown sod,
And twinkling stars, their maze were threading,
He, weeping, thus addressed his God.

"I kneel—to pray—I who have never
Yet knelt in prayer, kneel to beseech
Forgiveness; Thou did'st say that ever
Thy pardon penitence should reach.
Now in the dust behold me humbled,
And shuddering at thy just rage lie;
The worm that feeds on bodies crumbled
Is better in thy sight than I.

All-righteous Judge! recall thy sentence,
Allow me time to mend my ways;
And as I show or not repentance,
So lengthen, or abridge my days.
If that my heart still cleaves to errors,
Then execute thy named decree;
But if I mend, O! veil thy terrors,
And look with eyes of love on me."

He ceased. Whose are the tones that greet him
Soft as the gentle gales of spring?
'T is she who comes, weak girl! to meet him,
As 't were upon a plover's wing.
He answers not her fond caresses,
But with mild speech he bids her go;
And says, "To-morrow braid thy tresses,
And deck thyself for bridal show."

'T is morn, there 's frolic in the hamlet,
The rustics' joys to transports swell;
And many a cheek as brown as camlet,
Goes to the nuptials of Tom Bell.
He 's changed, they see, he checks their riot,
He speaks of foul paths he has trod;
And in his face there reigns the quiet
Of one at peace with a kind God.

Now evermore at the broad chancel,
He wakes the earliest anthem's swell;
Nor with hymns only does he cancel
His debts with Justice—he lives well.
His beds have pillows for the weary,
His wardrobe garments for the poor,
He makes the hungry orphan cheery,
He reads the Scriptures to the boor.

At home, abroad, dry, wet, night, morning,
'T is all the same, he 's ever calm,
Each day with some new trait adorning
Poor nature—gathering stores of balm.
And far and wide his praise is sounding,
His good deeds distant cities tell;
And slanderers who delight in wounding
Say nought against Reformed Tom Bell.

J.

THE CRUSADER'S FAREWELL.

Lady, farewell!
The morning sun is smiling on thy bower,
Bathing in glorious light each tree and flower,
And mossy dell.

The matin chant
Is rising now; but when the evening hymn
Sends its soft echoes in each woodland dim,
And storied haunt,

At that lone hour,
Afar from thee, I 'll look upon the sky,
And think each breeze as low it murmurs by,
Comes from thy bower.

And when that star
Which we have loved together, brightly burns
In the clear sky, I 'll think on one who mourns
For me, afar.

When thou art lone,
And o'er thy heart Hope sheds no brightening ray;
O sing the notes I loved in happier days—
Days fled and gone.

And when the shout
Of mailed men is soaring through the sky,
With crash of armour, and the redoubled cry
Of battle rout,

I 'll think on thee;
Thy name shall be my war-cry, and its swell
Shall sound the death-note of the infidel—
The watchword of the free.

But hark!—that swell!
It is the trumpet's parting call—I come!
Pray for thy lover, and for Christendom.
Farewell! Farewell!

F. M.

REST.

Of blessings here to man assigned
I ask for Rest alone;
Of seeming joys that fill the mind
It is the rarest one.

The Stateman lets a life roll by
In contest still for place,
The mark of Envy's jaundiced eye
And Calumny's embrace.

The Soldier steels his strong right arm
To pluck bright honour down,
And learns to seek in blood a charm,—
To win from Death renown.

The Seaman ploughs the stormy main,
Nor heeds the lowering sky,
Allured by sordid thirst of gain,
And reckless if to die.

The Lawyer wastes his days in courts,
And wrangles evermore
'Mid subtle toils, and rude retorts,
And worthless legal lore.

The Merchant coldly files his mind
To calculating schemes;
But dreads the storm, and hears the wind
Still howling in his dreams.

The Poet muses all the day,
Nor even in night dispels
The cruel cares that cloud his way,
As dark reflection tells.

The Lover lives on fancied bliss
And glories in a smile;
Oh how immense! reward like this
For woman's faithless wile.

Away with all these idle hopes
Of honour, love, and gain;
Ambition with affection copes,
And darkens life with pain.

I ask for rest; for nought but rest;
Calm, undisturbed repose;
This, only this can make me blest;
Ah! this no mortal knows.

A.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

The Claims of the Citizens of the United States on Denmark Examined. First Published in the Boston Monthly Magazine. By CALEB CUSHING. Boston. 1826. 8vo. pp. 18.

THIS pamphlet contains a concise history of the depredations of Denmark upon our commerce between the years 1809 and 1812; the grounds of the claims of our merchants for indemnification; and the evasions that have hitherto been resorted to by that nation to avoid an adjustment of them.

"Whatever doubt may exist," says Mr Cushing, "either as to the ability of Denmark to make us adequate satisfaction, or as to our own ability to exact it, will be partly removed, it is apprehended, by the consideration of a single circumstance. The truth is, that in a certain point she is peculiarly vulnerable. She is directly accessible to a blow from us by means of her little possessions in the West Indies. But she is still more dependant on our forbearance in another quarter. She enjoys the benefit of a privilege, more, as it respects us, by sufferance than of right, which it might not be amiss to inquire into a little, if she attempt to avoid our claim of indemnity. Every body knows there is such a thing as the sound duty, which the Danes require of all ships on their passing Elsinore. The exaction has been acquiesced in by our government, and this notwithstanding the immense sum of our claims on Denmark for spoliations. Our merchants, also, have continued unresistingly to pay it, because individually they cannot resist to any purpose. Few, perhaps, have either examined into the ground of the duty levied upon us, or ascertained and reflected upon its large aggregate amount. But seeing that Denmark has wantonly committed the grossest outrages upon our commerce and our national flag; seeing that she has refused or procrastinated our demands of indemnity; and seeing that she still retains the spoils of our industrious and enterprising mercantile marine, it seems quite natural to look into the necessity of our voluntarily paying her as we do, seventy, eighty, or ninety thousand dollars every year, without any value received. The imposition of such a tax, whether rightfully made or not, might, in the magnitude of our foreign commercial relations, pass without notice under ordinary circumstances. But Denmark holds too much of our property already, to be suffered to receive any more, without pretty severe scrutiny of the reasons therefor, and of the right whereby it is demanded.

"The sound duties are paid in the shape both of a tonnage duty and of a duty on commodities. They are regulated by treaty be-

tween the Danes and Dutch, the British, Russians, Swedes, French, Prussians, and other nations. The basis of the rate of duty as paid by them, and more especially as paid by Americans, is the tariff established by the States General, in their treaty concluded with Denmark, in 1645, and known as the treaty of Christianople. The tariff is qualified, however, and sundry additions are made to it, distinguished by the name of usances, and the whole is published in the common form of a tariff of duties on goods. It is not easy to ascertain the *precise* amount paid by us, because the cargoes of our ships, which ascend the Baltic, are not generally made up at home, and therefore cannot be collected from our custom-house books. Indeed, the ships engaged in the Baltic trade, do not, for the greater part, sail direct for Denmark, Russia, or Sweden. For instance, the American shipping cleared out for Russia between October 1st, 1823, and September 30th, 1824, was only 2,201 tons, while the amount entered from Russia in the same period, rose up to 16,051 tons. Our ships generally take a cargo to some other port, and carry the proceeds, in cash or bills, to Russia, or take cash or bills to some intermediate port, and there purchase a cargo to be carried to Russia and exchanged for a homeward cargo. Of course, no records here enable us to calculate with exactness the amount of duty paid at Elsinore upon cargoes collected out of the country. But persons conversant in the Russia trade, estimate the number of American vessels, which have annually ascended the Baltic, one year with another, the last three years, to be about one hundred, and the duty paid by each to average from 150*l*. to 200*l*. sterling, making in all from 15,000*l*. to 20,000*l*. per annum."

Mr Cushing has given in an appendix attached to his original observations, "a more particular account of the origin and history of the sound dues," together with passages from several works on national and maritime law, and remarks showing the application of their principles to the case in hand.

Matilda; a Tale of the Day. Philadelphia. 1825. 12mo. pp. 307.

The author of this work in his preface admits that his incidents are trite; and so indeed they are, as the following analysis will show. Lord Ormsby meets Lady Matilda Dornton, to whom he had been attached and *almost* engaged before her marriage, to which marriage she had been persuaded by a report that his lordship was about to be married to another lady. Sir James Dornton becomes jealous of his lady, as well he might, upon witnessing such scenes as the author describes. He scolds her, and she elopes with Lord Ormsby; lives with him awhile, and at last sickens and dies very

penitent for her misdoings. This story, trite as it is, the author has contrived to make interesting, and the style is very good. We are sorry to see such talents wasted on such a story. However poetical justice may be done at last, we more than doubt the moral effect of representing amiable adulterers; we do not know how it may be in Europe, but we hope the day is far distant when, in in this country, persons of such delicacy of feeling on all other subjects, as the hero and heroine of this work are described to be, can coolly commit their crime, and complain that they should lose their respectability. Books of this kind tend, in our opinion, to lower the tone of public morals, and to lead their readers to look with less horror at vice;—they are therefore to be discouraged, and we should be wanting in our duty if we did not affix on such as come within our notice the mark of our reprobation.

Tales of the Wild and the Wonderful. London. 1825. Philadelphia. 1826. 12mo. pp. 252.

This book, with an occasional want of smoothness and undue ambition in the style, with some extravagance of description and exaggeration of emotion, is a work of no ordinary merit. It contains much lively narration, fanciful description, and powerful expression of feeling and passion.

It consists of five tales. The first, called "The Prediction," is a description of a melancholy and imaginative intellect deranged by brooding over a horrid and malicious prophecy. In spite of occasional extravagance of thought and expression, we do not hesitate to pronounce this a striking exhibition of the workings and emotions of a distracted mind.

"The Yellow Dwarf" is one of those tales of Genii and enchantments, which have always found so much favour in the eyes of men, by representing superior beings as taking a lively interest in the common concerns of human life, and bringing about man's good or ill, without putting him to the trouble of exerting his own faculties. Sprightly narration, graphic description of the persons and characters of the super-human agents, and high-coloured pictures of their magical operations, are essential to make stories of this sort pleasing. Of these sources of interest there is no lack in this amusing tale.

"Der Freischütz," a translation from the well known German story of that name, is a tale of a young forester, who lost his skill as a marksman, and was in danger of losing his mistress, in consequence of his gun's being bewitched. In order to escape this catastrophe, he avails himself of the aid of the powers of darkness; and truly it strikes us, that if a man is exposed to suffer from their

enmity as poor William did, he hardly merits William's punishment for endeavouring to secure their friendship.

"The Fortunes of De la Pole" is a tale of guilty love and vengeance. In the description of the feelings which led to a horrid and unnatural murder, in the picture of the murder itself, and of the disfigured corpse, in the remorse and the spectral visitations that followed the commission of the crime, we recognise the hand of a master. The story, however, appears to us to be too purely horrible. The exhibition of the depths of human depravity may excite an intense interest, but this interest is not favourable to virtue and happiness. Our feelings and conduct towards our fellow-men must depend upon the ideas we entertain of their characters, and it is better to accustom ourselves to consider man as an amiable being, than as a fiend.

"The Lord of the Maelstrom" is a lively sketch of the ancient superstitions of the North of Europe. Its personages are the gods of the Scandinavian mythology, the inhabitants of the halls of Valhalla, who are brought before us with all their spiritual and bestial attributes, and made to live and move upon the scene. The story is full of incident and action, of high-wrought, romantic, and picturesque description, and is told in a spirited and agreeable style.

There are a few specimens of the author's poetical powers in this last story. These do not strike us as above mediocrity. As a writer of prose fiction, however, both in this and the preceding tales, he maintains a very respectable rank, and we hope we shall soon have an opportunity of renewing our acquaintance with him in that character.

American Journal of Education. Vol. I. No. 1. January. 1826. 8vo. pp. 64.

This is a new monthly publication, to be devoted exclusively to education. Periodicals have recently been multiplied to such an extent as to oblige us to relinquish the design of noticing each one as it appears. But this, whose title we have given above, professes to treat a subject in which we have ourselves taken so deep an interest, and to which we have appropriated so large a portion of our own pages, that we are unwilling to let the opportunity pass without announcing the appearance of so zealous a coadjutor, and recommending it to the public attention. We believe that the field is yet amply large for these, and even a greater number of fellow-labourers, and we are glad to see those enter, who seem to be zealously affected in a good cause.

INTELLIGENCE.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN FRANCE.

In Paris the Royal Library has above 700,000 printed volumes and 70,000 manuscripts; the Library of Monsieur, 150,000 printed volumes and 5,000 manuscripts; the Library of St Genevieve, 110,000 printed volumes and 2,000 manuscripts; the Mazarine Library, 92,000 printed volumes and 3,000 manuscripts; the Library of the City of Paris 20,000 volumes. *All these are daily open to the public!* In the departments, there are twenty-five public libraries, with above 1,700,000 volumes; of which Aix has 72,670; Marseilles, 31,500; Toulouse, 30,000; Bourdeaux, 100,000; Tours, 30,000; Lyons, 106,000; Versailles, 40,000; and Amiens, 40,000. In the Royal Library at Paris, there are several uncollated manuscripts of the Scriptures.

EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

In a description of Manilla, found in White's Voyage to Cochin China, the following account is given of the means of education in that city. "There are in different parts of the city various establishments, whose object is the education of youth; among which is a patriotic school for children, founded and directed by the citizens, under the protection and patronage of the governor; 'the Royal and Pontifical University,' where are taught the elements of civil and sacerdotal jurisprudence; the 'Royal College of St Joseph' is contiguous to the convent of the Jesuits, which was erected previous to their expulsion. There is also 'the Royal College of St John of Lateran,' for the education of male orphan children. Other establishments, for the education of female orphans, are also in the city, the most ancient of which is the 'College of St Potenciana,' for the orphans of Spanish soldiers; and the 'College of St Isabel,' where girls are prepared for the monasteries. They are, however, not obliged to embrace the monastic life when they leave the college, a fund being provided for fitting them out in marriage, if they prefer it. 'The Convent of St Clara,' or Franciscan Nuns, is celebrated for the austerity and rigid observances of its members; and we may add the *Beaterio*, or religious house of St Catherine, of the same character as the former. There are, besides these, several schools for the education of the Indians and Mistezas, or half casts; and seminaries for the purpose of instructing youth as missionaries to the neighbouring islands and kingdoms."

LANGUAGE OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Their colloquial language, like that of Java, Borneo, Sumatra, and many other islands in these seas, is a dialect of the Peninsular Malay, from whence it is thought they originated; and so striking is its similarity among all these islands, that the natives of each can in a greater

or less degree understand that of all the others. The characters of their written language differ widely, and great varieties of arrangement exist among them. The Tagalis write from top to bottom on palm leaves and strips of bamboo; and many of the Moors or Mahomedans use the Arabic characters. *White's Voyage to Cochin China.*

LANGUAGES OF AFRICA.

THE languages of Africa must, according to M. de Seetzen, amount to one hundred or one hundred and fifty. They differ from one another in the most striking manner, and have so few features of mutual resemblance, that the attempts made to classify them have proved fruitless. The Berber language has indeed been found to prevail from Morocco to Egypt. The three negro languages of Mandingo on the Upper Senegal, of Amina on the Gold Coast, of Congo on the Congo Coast, seem to be extensively diffused; and the same may be said of the Caffre Bejooanas. But the general character of Africa in this respect is still that of a multitude of confined idioms, which seem to comprehend many sounds scarcely articulate; some that are very strange, sometimes howlings, sometimes hisses, contrived in imitation of the cries of animals, or intended as watchwords to distinguish hostile tribes from one another. This fact perplexes those who consider the unity of the human race as a demonstrated historic truth; but it appears to us, that in Africa, and every where else, true history, going back to the most remote times, finds the human species like the plants and animals, disseminated over the surface of the globe, and divided into numberless small tribes or families, each speaking a peculiar idiom, imperfect, and often singularly distorted. The artificial combination of these primitive jargons has given origin to the regular languages, which probably began with the formation of cities.

Malte-Brun.

THE SINGULESE LITERATURE.

THE Singulese language, like the other Indian dialects, has its origin in the Sanscrit, mixed with what is called the Pali. It is, however, a peculiar language, and not, as some have asserted, the same with the Siamese. It has also a peculiar written character unknown in any other country. It is always written from left to right. Among this people, language is almost the only subject that is carefully studied. There are various dialects appropriated to different casts and to different occasions. Reading and writing are general acquirements among the men, but form no part of female education. Their books are written on talipot leaves, which are duly prepared, cut to a uniform shape, and connected together into books by a string passing through holes in the leaves. They are fond of intricacies and displays of art in language. One poem is considered as an extraordinary effort of genius, because it admits of being read from left to right, up and down, and various other ways, making sense in each. The compositions which approach nearest to poetry are addresses to the chiefs, expressive of respect, or soliciting them for favours.

OSTRICH HUNTING.

OSTRICH hunting is a curious amusement of the Arabs. Twenty mounted on the horses of the desert, which are as transcendent among horses as the *heiree* is among camels, proceed to windward in quest of an ostrich track, and when they have found one, follow it with the utmost rapidity, keeping at the distance of half a mile from one another. The ostrich, fatigued with running against the wind, which beats against his wings, turns about to the hunters, and attempts to penetrate their line; but they surround him, and all at once fire on the bird, when he falls. Without this address they could never take the ostrich, which, though destitute of the power of flying, surpasses in running the swiftest animals.

VARIETIES.

The University of Alabama.—The trustees of the University of Alabama have made a report, by which it appears that 12,718 acres of land belonging to that institution have been sold, producing with interests and rents the sum of $276,956 17. There remains yet for sale 33,361 acres; and it is supposed the aggregate produced by the whole will exceed $750,000.

Valuation and Population of Ohio.—The total value of the several counties in the state of Ohio according to the returns of the different county assessors, is $59,924,770. The population of Ohio, as was stated by Mr Wright, one of the representatives in Congress from that state, in his remarks on the judiciary bill, is now about one million. When the state was admitted into the Union, in 1803, her population was less than fifty thousand.

Prospects of the Peace Society.—Arbitration on national differences and the abolition of private war on the ocean,—two changes in which our country has the glory of having taken the lead,—may be considered as accomplishing the ardent desires of the friends of peace. When we left some of our differences with Great Britain to the arbitration of the Emperor of Russia, it certainly was not expected that this decision would be enforced by the sword. What then could have enforced it but public opinion? If our national differences may be settled by arbitration, all others may be. If private war on the ocean can be abolished, why may not public war share the same fate? *Mr Ladd's Address.*

Statue to the Memory of Dr Jenner.—The execution of this public monument reflects the highest credit upon the sculptor, R. W. Sievier, Esq. The Doctor is represented in the gown of his Oxford degree. In his right hand, which crosses his body and supports a fold of the gown, he holds a scroll; and in his left, which drops carelessly on the side, the appropriate academical cap. The whole figure is distinguished by classical elegance and simplicity. The statue is seven feet in height, placed upon a pedestal and base of eight feet. Upon the die of the pedestal is simply inscribed, "Edward Jenner," with the time and place of his birth and death.

New Waverley Novel.—The new novel by the author of Waverley was announced in London to appear in January. Its title is "Woodstock, or a Tale of the Long Parliament."

The Expiation.—The author of "Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life" has announced a novel under this name.

British Manufactures.—Two hundred and fifty thousand hands are now employed in Great Britain spinning cotton twist; they can do as much work as twenty-five millions of hands could before the introduction of steam and machinery.

Making Pins by Steam.—An immense establishment is erecting for the manufacture of pins; in which they are to be made by one blow of the machinery to be worked by steam, at the rate of ten thousand per minute!

Indigo Manufacture.—The dry plant is put into an earthen jar with hot water, and stirred round and worked till the colour is pressed out. The liquor is then strained through the bark of a tree into another jar, where it is left for eight or nine days. The sediment is poured afterwards into a broad shallow hole in the sand, which absorbs the water, and leaves the indigo in solid cakes.

Education of the Caffres.—At the age of twelve years, the children receive a sort of education from the chief of the horde. They are divided into companies, which are educated according to the exigency of the service. The boys are appointed to the care of the cattle, at the same time the public officers exercise them in the use of the javelin and club. The girls are taught, under the inspection of the chief's wives, to make cloths, prepare food, and in a word to perform the work of the hut and garden.

New Comet.—The Moniteur states, that M. Pons has discovered another new comet, at Florence, on the 7th of November. It was first seen in Eridanus, at about 54° of right ascension, and 14° south declination. It requires a good telescope to render it visible; and, according to M. Pons's observations, moves at the rate of about twenty minutes per day in a southwest direction.

Bibles.—The number of editions of the Bible at present in the library of the king of Wurtemberg, amounts to four thousand different editions in all the European languages; two hundred and ninety of which are in French, and two hundred and fifteen in English.

Pyramid of Cheops.—The height of a pyramid ascribed to Cheops, and situated on the west bank of the Nile near Djizeh, is four hundred and forty-seven feet, that is, forty feet higher than St Peter's at Rome, and a hundred and thirty-three higher than St Paul's in London. The length of the base is seven hundred and twenty feet.

Trade of Odessa.—In the course of September, the exports from Odessa, were: Russian goods, 2,781,419 rubles; foreign, ditto, 715,675 rubles; in the whole 3,497,094 rubles. Seventy foreign merchantmen arrived in that month, and seventy-five sailed.

Tea Plant in Brazil.—Orders have been issued in Brazil for the establishment of botanic gardens in all the provinces; and the attention of the planters has been called to the cultivation of the tea plant, of which one proprietor has already four thousand on his estate in fine order.

Sardinian Edict.—A royal Sardinian edict, lately issued, directs, that henceforth no person shall learn to read or write, who cannot prove the possession of property above the value of 1,500 livres, about sixty pounds sterling. The qualification of a student is the possession of an income of the same amount.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

EDUCATION.

El Traductor Español; or, A New and Practical System for Translating the Spanish Language. By Mariano Cubi y Soler. 12mo. pp. 226. Baltimore. F. Lucas, Jr.

LAW.

A Digest of the Cases decided and reported in the Supreme Court, the Court of Chancery, and the Court for the Correction of Errors, in the State of New York, from 1799 to 1823, by William Johnson. 2 vols. Royal 8vo. Albany. E. F. Backus.

Notes on Blackstone's Commentaries; for the Use of Students. Haud nomine dignus. 1826. 8vo. pp. 500. Winchester, Virginia. S. H. Davis.

MEDICINE.

The Characteristic of Homœopathia. From Hahnemann's "Geist der Homœopathischen Heil Lehre." By H. B. Gram, C. M. L. 8vo. pp. 24. New York. J. & J. Harper.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Address, delivered at the Tenth Anniversary of the Massachusetts Peace Society, December 25, 1825. By William Ladd, Esq. 8vo. pp. 31. Boston.

The Memorial of Chancellor Bland, to the Legislature of Maryland. 8vo. pp. 74.

A Concise View of the critical Situation and future Prospects of the Slave-holding States, in relation to their Coloured Population. By Whitemarsh B. Seabrook. Read before the Agricultural Society of St Jonn's Colleton, Charleston, S. C. on the 14th of September, 1825. 8vo. Charleston.

Notices of the original and successive Efforts to improve the Discipline of the Prison at Philadelphia, and to reform the Criminal Code of Pennsylvania; with a few Observations upon the Penitentiary System. By Roberts Vaux. 8vo. pp. 76. Philadelphia. Kimber & Sharpless.

An Address, delivered at the Anniversary Celebration of the Franklin Typographical Society, January 17th, 1826. By Jefferson Clark. 8vo. Boston. Dutton & Wentworth.

A Discourse, delivered on the Festival of St John the Evangelist, December 27th, 1825, before the Officers and Brethren of Macon Lodge, No. 34. By Rev. Brother Lot Jones, Rector of Christ's Church, Macon. Published by request of the Brethren. Macon. 1826. 8vo. pp. 11.

From this appropriate and eloquent discourse, we wish to put upon record the following paragraph: "Is it intimated that we place the pretensions of our fraternity on too elevated ground; that the posture we assume is occupied exclusively by religion. We disclaim the imputation. We do not urge a divine origin; we do not profess to exhibit in our lectures every part of the Gospel system. We select some important, but much neglected duties, and make them the theme of earnest persuasion. As far as we advance on sacred ground, we are sanctioned by the authority of reason and revelation. Our institution is a benevolent society, and also social and religious, in the same sense that a Tract Society, a Bible Society, or an Orphan Asylum may be so termed. It is not religion itself, nor a substitute for it, but a valuable auxiliary to it."

NOVELS.

The Last of the Mohicans; a Narrative of 1757. By the Author of the "Spy," "Pilot," &c. 2 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

POLITICS.

An Essay on a National Bankrupt Law; to which is added, an Abstract of the Bankrupt Bill, which was introduced into the Senate of the United States, January 2, 1821. By a Counsellor at Law. 8vo. Price 25 cents.

The Constitution of 1776. By a Member of the Staunton Convention. 8vo. pp. 64. Winchester, Virginia.

THEOLOGY.

Remarks on a late Article in the Wesleyan Journal. By a Member of the Charleston Unitarian Tract Society. 1825. 8vo. pp. 16. Charleston, S. C. C. C. Sebring.

The Substance of a Discourse, preached in the Hall of the House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States, in the City of Washington, on Sunday, January 8th, 1826. By the Right Rev. John England, D. D. Bishop of Charleston. 8vo. pp. 52. Baltimore. F. Lucas, Jr.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The First Annual Report of the Acting Committee of the Society for the Promotion of Internal Improvement in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. 8vo. pp. 47. Philadelphia. J. R. A. Skerrett.

Report of the President and Directors of the Connecticut River Company; with the Report of H. Hutchinson, Esq. laid before the Stockholders, at their Annual Meeting, January 3, 1826. 8vo. pp. 54. Hartford.

The Claims of the Delaware and Raritan Canal Company to a Repeal of the Law of Pennsylvania, passed April 6, 1825, on the subject of that Canal. 8vo. pp. 27. Philadelphia.

Report of the Canal Commissioners to the General Assembly. Read and ordered to be printed, December 12th, 1825. 8vo. pp. 54. Columbus, Ohio. George Nashee.

A New American Atlas, comprising fifteen Maps, on Royal Sheets, handsomely coloured and bound. Price $8. Philadelphia. A. Finley.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

Elements of Phrenology. By George Combe, late President of the Phrenological Society. First American Edition, with Notes; from the second Edinburgh, improved and enlarged, with two Engravings. 12mo. pp. 221. Philadelphia. E. Littell.

Tales of the Wild and Wonderful. 12mo. pp. 252. Philadelphia. E. Littell.

Hints for the Improvement of Early Education and Nursery Discipline. Last American, from the fifth London edition. 12mo. pp. 170. Salem. James R. Buffum.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the U. S. Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. III. MARCH 1, 1826. No. 11.

REVIEWS.

A Journal of a Tour around Hawaii, the largest of the Sandwich Islands. By a Deputation from the Mission on those Islands. Boston. 1825. 12mo. pp. 264.

THE islands scattered over that immense portion of the earth's surface, stretching away from the south and east of Asia, southward and eastward to the western coast of this continent, afford several subjects of inquiry peculiar to themselves, and, in our view, quite as interesting as the antiquities and ruins of the East. Without intending to detract at all from the value of the researches of the numerous and respectable antiquaries of the present day, or to question the practical bearing of their discoveries upon the condition and prospects of mankind, we have sometimes been so unclassical as to admit the belief, that public and private munificence are as well bestowed upon those who go forth to explore and civilize these hitherto waste regions of the earth, as upon those, who spend their more sentimental lives over the sites of ancient cities. And we think, that he, whose efforts have directly contributed to improve the condition of any of these portions of the human race, now living, and transmitting their customs and institutions, whether good or evil, to their posterity, may safely reflect, that he has laboured to as good purpose, as if he had now and then turned up a curly-eared vase from the ruins of Herculaneum, or unrolled a fragment of a chapter of some work, whose name and whose author are now with those beyond the flood. There has been much vagueness in all the descriptions, with which the civilized world has yet been favoured, of this part of the earth. Indeed, no one portion

of it seems to have been explored with much minuteness or accuracy, if we except a few commercial places on the Sunday Isles, the British possessions on the eastern coast of New Holland, and the few places where the missionary enterprise of the present day has been able to make a permanent stand, and to gain upon the barbarism of the natives. One copious source of confusion in this part of geography, has been the want of a uniform classification of the different clusters of islands. Some geographers have described a few of them in connexion with the continents to which they happened to be adjacent, and have treated of the remainder separately, and without any particular order or arrangement. Others have allowed some small islands to attach themselves to the eastern continent, and have divided the remainder into two great classes, "Australasia" and "Polynesia." This arrangement has generally been followed, till recently M. Malte-Brun, who seems to have collected in his system of geography all that was known of every part of the earth at the time he made his publication, has introduced a new classification, which we hope, for perspicuity's sake, will be adopted hereafter by all. He classes all the islands which other geographers have described in connexion with Asia, as well as those denominated "Australasia" and "Polynesia," together, making of them a distinct fifth division of the earth, under the name of "Oceanica." So that, according to him, the earth is geographically divided into Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Oceanica. He gives his reasons for this arrangement of the islands, which are principally derived from certain traits in the physiognomy of this part of the earth's surface, from the races which inhabit it, and from the similar languages which prevail over almost the whole. This vast region is again subdivided into three parts; 1st. Northwest Oceanica, embracing the islands situated between the Indian Sea, the Chinese Sea, and the Ocean as far as the 132d meridian east from London; 2d. Central Oceanica, embracing New Holland and the islands ranged round it, viz. New Guinea, New Britain, New Ireland, Solomon's Islands, Louisiada, Terra del Spirito Santo, New Caledonia, New Zealand, and Van Dieman's Land; 3d. Eastern Oceanica, embracing the numerous small groups scattered over the Pacific Ocean, from the Marias to Easter Island and Hawaii.

The races of human beings who inhabit Oceanica seem to be referrible to two stocks, totally distinct in physiognomy and language; the Malays, or Yellow Oceanians, and the Oceanian Negroes. In a few instances, they are found together upon the

same islands; but generally they are separate, each possessing its own territory to the exclusion of the other. The Negro race possesses New Holland and all the circumjacent islands included under the division of Central Oceanica, with the exception of New Zealand; and the Malays occupy the other two subdivisions, denominated above Northwestern and Eastern Oceanica. There must necessarily be differences in many respects among the inhabitants of so vast a territory as that occupied by the Malay race; seeing that it spreads from Sumatra eastward to Easter Island, a distance of almost half a circumference of the earth, and from New Zealand northward to Hawaii, a distance of about seventy degrees of latitude. But, admitting these lesser differences to exist among the different tribes, there are still resemblances in their physiognomy, their languages, their government and laws, their ceremonial dances and songs, and their division into casts, which justify their being referred, without a perversion of terms, to one and the same stock.

Several theories have been started to account for this wide dispersion of what must be considered the Malay race. But we do not know that the world is much the wiser for any of them, except so far as their advocates have been more zealous in the collection of facts in support of them. Some have been at pains to account for the peopling of the Polynesian islands in the first instance, and have rested satisfied on coming to the *supposition*, that these islands are the fragments of a vast continent, the remainder of which has, for some sufficient cause, dropped below the surface of the waters. Others have supposed that the inhabitants of these islands originally came from Africa or Asia; but the want of a similarity in their physiognomy, and the wrong direction of the usual winds in that quarter, seem to be facts much at variance with this theory. Others, again, have conjectured that the race came originally from this continent, and floated westward at different times, from island to island, half round the earth; but no traces of a similarity of the languages of the islanders and any race found on this continent, have yet been discovered. Malte-Brun thinks that the language, customs, and institutions of the Malay race, now so widely dispersed, must have been formed "in the bosom of an ancient empire, a powerful nation, and one which cultivated maritime habits, but which has since fallen from its eminence, and been frittered down into detached local communities, unknown to each other;" and that the seat of this empire was Java. He also fixes the epoch of its

existence somewhere between the fourth and tenth centuries of the Christian era, and goes so far as to state the times at which the dispersion took place, and its causes.

We have no inclination to enlarge upon the probabilities of the truth of any of these theories; and it would, moreover, be obviously impossible for us within any space which we can appropriate for the purpose, to enter in detail upon the various interesting topics suggested by the history, present condition, and prospects of the inhabitants of the numerous islands in the Pacific Ocean. We must therefore at once narrow the sphere of our remarks to the condition of a few of the islands in Eastern Oceanica, or what has usually been denominated Polynesia. Till within a very few years the civilized world has known about as little of these islands as they have of the moon. And good reasons for it. It is not long since commercial enterprise opened a trade with the Northwest Coast of America. Previously to this, the productions of the islands adjacent were too little known to attract any attention on their own account, and, consequently, no vessels touched at them, except those traversing the ocean on voyages of discovery. Moreover, the fate of the most successful explorer of these regions did not probably increase the intrepidity of his successors. They generally kept themselves pretty close to the decks of their own vessels, and made most of their discoveries through their spy-glasses,—not very good instruments, we are persuaded, to study geography or human character with. They observed a little, guessed a good deal, and, in the absence of more authentic facts, made up large and quite interesting books. But there was a vagueness about all their accounts of the numbers of the inhabitants on different islands, and of their manners and customs, which plainly showed, that they were not founded on accurate observation. And the accounts, moreover, of each successive discoverer, differed so widely from all who had preceded him, as to bring doubt upon the whole, and destroy in a great degree the public interest and sympathy in this degraded class of the human race.

But within the last five and twenty or thirty years, perhaps we should say a much shorter period, the intelligence from these islands has assumed a more distinct and authentic form. The intercourse between the Northwest Coast and China, growing out of the fur-trade, and carried on principally by enterprising merchants of Salem, of this city, and New York, has occasioned many visits to different islands, and each one has added something to our knowledge of the true character of the inhabi-

tants. But for almost all we know of the present condition of these islands, we are indebted to the English and American missionaries. They have for many years been established on some of the islands, and have therefore enjoyed peculiar opportunities for observation, and for becoming thoroughly acquainted with the whole subject. They have explored the different islands with greater minuteness, and have examined the institutions peculiar to them with more care than has been done by any others. And we are persuaded from their accounts, as well as from all other accounts which we can gather, that moral and political changes have been going on, principally by their agency, upon which neither the philosopher, the philanthropist, nor the Christian can look with indifference.

The principal and most successful missionary establishments are on the Society Islands and the Sandwich Islands. The former was made by the London Missionary Society in 1797; and the latter by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, in 1820. The effect produced by the English missionaries upon the inhabitants of the Society Islands, for the first fifteen years, was very inconsiderable; so inconsiderable, indeed, that the missionaries themselves began to despair, and their patrons to hesitate in the prosecution of their benevolent designs. But about ten years ago, some impression was apparently made, and since that time their labours have almost wholly transformed the moral and political character of these islands, and promise the happiest results to the other islands in the same seas. The want of greater success in the early efforts of the missionaries seems mainly to be attributable to two causes; one growing out of a mistake in the points to which they gave their first and almost undivided attention; and the other, probably, unavoidable from the nature of the undertaking. They attempted to christianize the savages by efforts too direct; without sufficient attention to the preliminary steps of enlightening and civilizing them. And, secondly, the want of a common language, or an organ of communication between the missionaries and the natives, presented obstacles to their success, which could not be suddenly removed. The natives would not learn the language of their teachers, and the teachers could not, at once, learn that of the natives. No progress of course could be made till this difficulty could be surmounted. And this was no easy matter. It was a more difficult and laborious task than might at first be imagined to reduce the language of a tribe of savages, which had never been written, to a clear and consistent

form; to catch the sounds of words uttered without much distinctness of articulation, and with no great uniformity of pronunciation, and express them accurately with characters, which had never before been used in such combinations. But this object has been in some good degree attained. A grammar of the language was published by the missionaries in 1823. And several books have since been printed on the islands, and circulated among the natives; so that the same difficulty cannot occur again in the same degree, even if the task of civilization should be undertaken by new and inexperienced men; seeing that they would have the advantage of printed books to aid them in the acquisition of the language.

We have stated in another part of this article, on the authority of M. Malte-Brun, and those from whom he derived his facts, that essentially the same language prevails over the greater part of Eastern as well as Northwestern Oceanica. This statement derives confirmation from the introductory remarks prefixed to the grammar printed by the English missionaries at the Society Islands, although a few exceptions to the rule are there made as to particular islands. The principal dialects are stated to be the *Hawaiian*, or that of the Sandwich Islands; the *Marquesan*; that of *New Zealand*; the *Tongatabuan*, or that of the Friendly Islands; and the *Tahitian*. Of all of these dialects, we believe grammars have now been published. The other dialects, so far as they are known, bear more or less resemblance, some to one and some to another of those above named; and even those which differ most from each other are so analogous, that a person who understands one of them will find but little difficulty in making himself understood by natives who speak the others. The tendency of the intercourse which is now kept up by visits and correspondence between the natives of the different clusters of islands undoubtedly will be to render the dialects still more similar to each other.

Since the establishment of a printing-press on the Society Islands, it is said by missionaries, that more than half of the whole population, which is estimated now to amount to no more than twenty thousand, have learned to read intelligibly, and that many have acquired the art of writing their language, and some have made good progress in arithmetic. Three thousand children and adults are found in the schools, many of which are now taught by natives; and we have seen in a late English publication an account of the building of a cotton factory at Eimeo, and the organization of an Auxiliary Missionary Society among

the natives, which promised to be efficient in diffusing knowledge among the neighbouring clusters of islands. The condition of the Society Islanders has without doubt undergone a most salutary change. Their devastating wars, their human sacrifices, and their brutal customs, so shocking to humanity that we cannot even describe them, and which at one period threatened the extinction of the race, have been abolished, and the arts of peace, and many of the happy institutions of civilized life have been introduced, and have taken root among them.

The American missionaries at the Sandwich Islands have been hardly less successful. They arrived at the islands in April, 1820; and, although the progress was inconsiderable at first, while they were settling the orthography of the language, they have since produced a very obvious and happy effect upon the condition of the inhabitants. In 1822, they were joined by the Rev. William Ellis, an English missionary, who had passed several years at the Society Islands. This gentleman seems to have been very efficient, and to have made himself eminently useful to the American missionaries, on account of the intimate knowledge he had acquired of the native character and language. The Sandwich Islands are a cluster of ten in number, eight of which are inhabited, varying in size from sixty to four thousand square miles. The climate is represented as healthy; the average temperature of August, the warmest month in the season, was, in 1821, 79°, and that of January, the coldest month, was, in 1822, 70° Fahrenheit. Parts of the territory are represented as extremely fertile, although there is a great scarcity of fresh water; and the digging of wells is attended with great labour on account of the thick strata of lava, which seem to have been deposited at some period on almost every part of the islands. None of the islands, however, have been very minutely examined, except Hawaii, the largest of the group. This island was explored by four of the missionaries, of whom Mr Ellis was one, with a view to ascertain the number and condition of the inhabitants, and the most advantageous positions to be occupied by the missionary families. They commenced their tour early in the summer of 1823, and completed it in a little more than two months. The journal of this tour, drawn up by Mr Ellis, and subsequently approved by his companions, forms the subject of this volume. From such observations as they were able to make, they estimate the whole number of inhabitants on the single island of Hawaii, to be eighty-five thousand; and these, from the missionary accounts, appear to be

generally settled upon the border of the island, leaving the interior comparatively uninhabited.

The deputation, previously to their expedition, assembled at Kairua, the largest village upon the island, situated on the west side, and estimated to contain somewhat more than twenty-five hundred inhabitants. Here was exhibited a specimen of native dancing.

The five musicians first seated themselves on the ground, and spread a piece of folded cloth in the sand before them. Their instrument was a large calabash, or rather two, one of an oval shape, about three feet high, the other perfectly round, very neatly fastened to it, having also an aperture about three inches in diameter at the top. Each musician held his instrument before him with both his hands, and produced his music by striking it on the ground where he had laid the piece of cloth, and beating it with his fingers, or the palms of his hands. As soon as they began to sound their calabashes, the dancer, a young man about the middle stature, advanced through the opening crowd. His jet black hair hung in loose and flowing ringlets down his naked shoulders, his necklace was made of a vast number of strings of nicely braided human hair tied together behind, while a *paraoa*, (an ornament made of a whale's tooth), hung pendant from it on his breast. His wrists were ornamented with bracelets formed of polished tusks of a hog, and his ancles with loose buskins thickly set with dog's teeth, the rattle of which kept time with the music of the calabash drum during the dance. A beautiful yellow tapa was tastefully fastened around his loins, reaching to his knees. He began his dance just in front of the musicians, and moved forwards and backwards across the ring, occasionally cantilating the achievements of former kings of Hawaii. The governor sat at the end of the ring opposite to the musicians, and appeared gratified with the performance, which continued until dark.

The following is a description of an interesting scene of native industry.

This morning we perceived Keoua, the Governor's wife, and her female attendants, with about forty other women, under the pleasant shade of a beautiful clump of kou trees, employed in stripping off the bark from bundles of *wauti* sticks, for the purpose of making cloth with it. The sticks were generally from six to ten feet long, and about an inch in diameter at the thickest end. They first cut the bark the whole length of the stick, with a sharp serrated shell, and having carefully peeled it off, roll it into small coils, the inner bark being outside. In this state it is left some time to make it flat and smooth. Keoua not only worked herself,

but appeared to take the superintendance of the whole party. Whenever a fine piece of bark was found, it was shown to her, and put aside for some special purpose. With lively chat and cheerful song they beguiled the hours of labour, until noon, when, having finished their work, they repaired to their dwellings.

From Kairua the travellers proceeded southward along the coast, noticing and describing whatever presented itself worthy of observation. At Kaavaroa, they visited the place where the body of Captain Cook was deposited on being first taken from the beach.

There are a number of persons at this and other places in the islands, who were either present themselves at the unhappy dispute, which in this village caused the death of the celebrated Captain Cook, or who, by their connexion with those who were, are intimately acquainted with the particulars of that melancholy event. With many of them we have frequently conversed, and though their narratives differ in some smaller points, yet they all agree in the main facts published by Captain King, his successor.

The foreigner, they say, was not to blame; for, in the first instance, our people stole his boat, and he designed to take our king on board and detain him till it should be returned. Captain Cook and Taraiopu were walking together towards the shore, when our people thronged round the king, and objected to his going any farther. While he was hesitating, a man, running from the other side of the bay, entered the crowd almost breathless, and exclaimed, "It is war! The foreigners have commenced hostilities, have fired on a canoe from one of their boats, and killed a chief." This enraged some of our people, and alarmed the chiefs, as they feared he would kill the king. The people armed themselves with stones, clubs, and spears. Kanona entreated her husband not to go. All the chiefs did the same. The king sat down. The foreigner seemed agitated, and started for his boat. Then one of our men attacked him with a spear, but he turned, and with his double barrelled gun, shot the man who struck him. Some of our people then threw stones at him, which being seen by his men, they fired on us. Captain Cook turned, and tried to stop his men from firing, but he could not, on account of the noise. He was turning again to speak to us, when he was stabbed in his back with a *pahoa*. A spear was at the same instant driven through his body. He fell into the water, and spake no more. After he was dead we all wailed. His bones were separated, and the flesh scraped off and burnt; as was the practice in regard to our own chiefs when they died. We thought he was our god *Rono*, worshipped him as such, and reverenced his bones.

Perhaps the most striking parts of the volume are the descriptions of the volcanoes and volcanic appearances which occur at almost every step. The most remarkable of these is the crater of Kirauea, situated on the southeast part of the island.

We travelled on, clearing every ohelo bush, that grew near the path, till about 2 P. M., when the crater of Kirauea all at once burst upon our view. We expected to have seen a mountain, with a broad base, and rough indented sides, composed of loose slags, or streams of lava, and whose summit would have presented a rugged wall of scoriæ, forming the rim of a mighty caldron. But instead of this, we found ourselves on the edge of a steep precipice, with a vast plain before us, fifteen or sixteen miles in circumference, and sunk from two hundred to four hundred feet below its original level. The surface of the plain below was uneven, and strewed over with large stones, and volcanic rocks; and in the centre of it was the great crater, a mile or a mile and a half distant from the precipice, on which we were standing. * *

We walked on to the north end of the ridge, where, the precipice being less steep, a descent to the plain below seemed practicable. It required, however, the greatest caution, as the stones and fragments of rock frequently gave way under our feet, and rolled down from above; and with all our care we did not reach the bottom without several falls and slight bruises. The steep which we had descended, was formed of volcanic materials, apparently a light red, and grey kind of lava, vesicular, and lying in horizontal strata, varying in thickness from one to forty feet. In a small number of places, the different strata of lava were, also, rent in perpendicular or oblique directions, from the top to the bottom, either by earthquakes, or other violent convulsions of the earth, connected with the action of the adjacent volcano. After walking some distance over the sunken plain, which, in several places, sounded hollow under our feet, we came suddenly to the edge of the great crater, where a spectacle, sublime and appalling, presented itself before us.

Astonishment and awe for some moments deprived us of speech, and, like statues, we stood fixed to the spot, with our eyes rivetted on the abyss below.

Immediately before us yawned an immense gulph, in the form of a crescent, upwards of two miles in length, about a mile across, and apparently eight hundred feet deep. The bottom was filled with lava, and the southwest and northern parts of it were one vast flood of liquid fire, in a state of terrific ebullition, rolling to and fro its "fiery surge," and flaming billows. Fifty-one craters, of varied form and size, rose, like so many conical islands, from the surface of the burning lake. Twenty-two constantly emitted columns of grey smoke, or pyramids of brilliant flame, and many of them, at

the same time, vomited, from their ignited mouths, streams of florid lava, which rolled, in blazing torrents, down their black, indented sides, into the boiling mass below.

The sides of the gulph before us, were perpendicular, for about four hundred feet; when there was a wide, horizontal ledge of solid black lava, of irregular breadth, but extending completely round. Beneath this black ledge, the sides sloped towards the centre, which was, as nearly as we could judge, three hundred or four hundred feet lower. It was evident, that the crater had been recently filled with liquid lava up to this black ledge, and had, by some subterranean canal, emptied itself into the sea, or inundated the low land on the shore. The grey, and, in some places, apparently calcined, sides of the great crater before us; the fissures, which intersected the surface of the plain, on which we were standing; the long banks of sulphur, on the opposite side; the numerous columns of vapour and smoke, that rose at the north and south end of the plain, together with the ridge of steep rocks, by which it was surrounded, rising, probably, in some places, four hundred feet in perpendicular height, presented an immense volcanic panorama, the effect of which was greatly augmented by the constant roaring of the vast furnaces below. * *

We then walked along the western side of the crater, till we reached the north end, where we left the few provisions, and little baggage, that we had, and went in search of water, which we had been informed, was to be found in the neighbourhood. About half a mile distant, in a northerly direction, we found two or three small pools of perfectly sweet, fresh water, a luxury, which, notwithstanding the reports of the natives, we did not expect to meet, in these regions of fire. It proved a most grateful refreshment to us, after travelling upwards of twenty miles over a barren thirsty desert. * *

After walking about three quarters of a mile, over a tract of decomposed lava, covered with ohelo bushes, they came to a bank about one hundred and fifty yards long, and, in some places, upwards of thirty feet high, formed of volcanic sulphur, with a small proportion of red clay. The ground was hot, its surface rent by fissures; and they were sometimes completely enveloped in the thick vapours, that continually ascended. A number of apertures were visible, along the whole extent of the bank of sulphur; smoke and vapours arose from these fissures; and the heat around them was more intense, than in any other part. They climbed about half way up the bank, and endeavoured to detach some parts of the crust, but soon found it too hot to be handled. However, by means of their walking sticks, they broke off some curious specimens. Those procured near the surface were crystallized in beautiful circular prisms, of a light yellow colour, while those

found three or four inches deep in the bank, were of an orange yellow, generally in single or double tetrahedral pyramids, and full an inch in length. A singular hissing and cracking noise was heard among the crystals, whenever the outside crust of the sulphur was broken, and the atmospheric air admitted. The same noise was produced among the fragments broken off, until they were quite cold. The adjacent stones, and pieces of clay, were frequently incrusted, either with sulphate of ammonia, or volcanic sal ammoniæ. Considerable quantities were also found in the crevices of some of the neighbouring rocks, which was much more pungent than that exposed to the air. Along the bottom of the sulphur bank, they found a number of pieces of tufa, extremely cellular and light. A thick fog now came over, which, being followed by a shower of rain, obliged them to leave this interesting laboratory of nature, and return to their companions. On their visit to the sulphur banks, they saw two flocks of wild geese, which came down from the mountains, and settled among the ohelo bushes, near the pools of water. The natives informed them there were vast flocks in the interior, although they were never seen near the shore. * *

But the magnificent fires of Kirauea, which we had viewed with such admiration, appeared to dwindle into taper glimmerings, when we contemplated the possible, not to say probable, existence of immense subterranean fires immediately beneath us. The whole island of Hawaii, covering a space of four thousand square miles, from the summits of its lofty mountains, perhaps fifteen thousand or sixteen thousand feet above the level of the sea, down to the beach that is washed by the rolling wave, is, according to every observation we could make, one complete mass of lava, or other volcanic matter, in different stages of decomposition; and, perforated with innumerable apertures, or craters, forms, perhaps, a stupendous arch over one vast furnace, situated in the heart of a huge submarine mountain, of which the island of Hawaii is but the apex. Or, possibly, the fires rage with augmented force at the unfathomable depth of the ocean's bed; and reared, through the superincumbent weight of waters, a hollow mountain, forming the base of Hawaii, and, at the same time, a pyramidal funnel from the furnace to the atmosphere.

Waiakea is estimated by the missionaries to contain two thousand inhabitants, and is the most considerable village on the island except Kairua. It is situated on the eastern coast nearly opposite to the latter village on the west.

The face of the country in the vicinity of Waiakea, is the most beautiful we have yet seen, which is probably occasioned by the humidity of the atmosphere, the frequent rains that fall here,

and the long repose the district has experienced from volcanic eruptions. The light and fertile soil is formed by decomposed lava, with a considerable portion of vegetable mould. The whole is covered with luxuriant vegetation, and the greater part of it formed into plantations, where plantains, bananas, sugar-cane, taro, potatoes, and melons, come to the greatest perfection. Groves of cocoa-nut and bread-fruit trees are seen in every direction, loaded with fruit, or clothed with luxuriant foliage. The houses are, for the most part, larger and better built, than those of many districts, through which we had passed. We thought the people generally industrious; for, in several of the less fertile parts of the district, we saw small pieces of lava thrown up in heaps, and potatoe-vines growing very well in the midst of them, though we could scarcely perceive a particle of soil. There are plenty of ducks in the ponds and streams, at a little distance from the sea; and several large ponds or lakes literally swarm with fish, principally of the mullet kind. The fish in these ponds belong to the king and chiefs, and are *tabu* [sacred] from the common people. Along the stone walls, which partly encircle these ponds, we saw a number of small huts, where the persons reside, who have the care of the fish, and are obliged frequently to feed them with a small kind of muscle, which they procure in the sand around the bay.

We have only room, in conclusion, for the following extract, descriptive of the canoes used by the natives of the Sandwich Island.

The canoes of the Sandwich Islands appear eminently calculated for swiftness, being long, narrow, generally light, and drawing but little water. A canoe is always made out of a single tree. Some of them are seventy or eighty feet long, one or two feet wide, and upwards of three feet deep; though their length is seldom more than fifty feet. The body of the canoe is generally covered with a black paint, made by the natives, of various earthy and vegetable substances. On the upper edge of the canoe is sewed, in a remarkably neat manner, a small strip of hard white wood, from six to eight inches in width, according to the size and length of the canoe. These strips meet and close over the top at both stem and stern, and shoot off much water, that would otherwise enter the canoe. All the canoes of these islands are remarkably strong and neatly made, and though not so large as those of New Zealand, the Society Islands, or some of the other islands to the southward, are certainly better made, and would probably paddle or sail faster than either them. One man will sometimes paddle a single canoe faster than a good boat's crew could row a whale-boat. Their tackling is simple and convenient. The mast generally has a

notch cut at the lower end, and is placed on one of the cross-pieces to which it is tied. The sails they now use are made of mats, and cut in imitation of the sprit-sails of foreign boats, which they say they find much better than the kind of sail they had when first visited by foreigners. When sailing with a fresh breeze, the ropes from the lower corner of the sail are always loosened, and held in the hands of persons, whose only business it is to keep them properly trimmed. Their paddles, which are large and strong, are generally four or five feet long, have an oval-shaped blade and round handle, and are made of the same hard and heavy wood employed in building their canoes. They are never carved, do not appear handsome, and their weight must make the paddling very laborious.

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1. *The Cunning Lover. L'Amante Astuto, Opera Comica. In due Atti.* Poesia del Signor Rosich, Musica del Signor Manuel Garzia. New York. 1825. 18mo. pp. 57.

2. *Il Tancredi. Tancred; an Heroic Opera, in two Acts, as performed at the New York Theatre.* The Music by Gioacchino Rossini. New York. 1825. 18mo. pp. 55.

The introduction of the Italian Opera in the United States is certainly an epoch of great interest in the history of music in our country, and one which the most enthusiastic votaries of the art could hardly have anticipated during the lives of the present generation. We have our fears, indeed, that the result of the experiment may prove, that it has been prematurely made; and that instead of promoting, it may retard the progress of music among us. Should the efforts of the Italian corps not be well remunerated, or their spirit chilled by a want of encouragement, an impression may be produced in their minds, and among the professors of the art abroad generally, that our institutions and our habits and pursuits are inconsistent with a refined and cultivated taste in the most fascinating of the fine arts, and the consequence may be the postponement of the establishment of this elegant amusement in our cities to a more distant period than our rapid increase in population and resources would have warranted us in expecting.

But we live in a time of great mental activity. The spirit of our age is one of enterprise and improvement, and it is employed about objects highly important to the public, and deeply interesting to individuals. It may be doubted, whether this state of

excitement, however conducive it may be to the success of the projects it generates, is favourable to the progress of the arts which have no sympathy with, and no relation to the passions of men. The periods when the fine arts have most flourished, have been calm and tranquil, and the patrons, who have most encouraged their cultivation, if they were not in the most elevated stations in society, or possessed of splendid fortunes, were at least free from the constant action of those overpowering and absorbing passions, ambition and avarice. We are all occupied, however, in acquiring or accumulating what ought to be esteemed only the means of usefulness, as affording opportunity to devote our time to intellectual cultivation, and to make advances in the refinements and elegancies of life. We are busied about the shaft, and think little of the capital of the column. We are sufficiently attentive to the great objects which affect our interests, and which go to the improvement of our condition, as it is called; but we are yet careless about the cultivation of the "liberal arts."

Is it impossible to combine activity and energy in the pursuit of the leading objects of interest to every man with a taste for the refined pleasures of polished society? Must we carry about with us forever the associations of the compting-room and the exchange? And is insensibility to the influence of any other species of excitement a necessary consequence of that *thirst* by which most of us are consumed? It is not certainly because the patronage of the fine arts involves great expense or labour, that their professors are neglected. Our modes of life abundantly prove, that we are lavish in expenditures upon what are termed amusements, but what are in fact very questionable sources of gratification to the great majority of their votaries. Nor is it, one would think, because we are destitute of all perception of the kind of pleasure which they afford, for we boast of our poets and our painters, though we let them starve. Native musicians, alas! we have none to boast of. The professors of architecture are indeed more fortunate. Every village in our country exhibits some specimen of *original taste* in the art of building, and when the committee of the Bunker Hill Monument Association offered the enormous sum of one hundred dollars for the best model of a monument to commemorate the first and most important regular battle in the war of the revolution, two large rooms could hardly contain the models and designs which poured in upon them from all quarters, so rich are we in architectural talent. One public building in Boston (we do not mean

the State House), and one in Cambridge (we beg not to be supposed to allude to any of the College buildings), may be pointed out to strangers, who visit us, without mortification; and this is more, we believe, than can be done by all our cities. It is, moreover, common with us, when a church or other public edifice is to be erected, to engage a scientific architect to give the designs, and superintend the execution of the work; and cases have occurred, though they are certainly rare instances of magnanimity, where such an artist has not been compelled to make an alteration in his plan for every member of the parish or corporation, by which he was employed.

May we not then, at the present day, look for other improvements in our modes of thinking upon, and habits of encouraging the fine arts generally? We hope we are not mistaken in the indications we imagine we perceive, that a change is taking place in public feeling on all kindred subjects; and we hope that Signor Garcia will have no cause to repent having exposed himself and the treasures he carries with him, to the hazards of a voyage to our shores, distant as they appear from the other side of the Atlantic, and to the still more doubtful chance of success in his effort to introduce and establish among us a new and most interesting means of public amusement.

Those who are not conversant with this entertainment, have sometimes supposed that the opera could not be enjoyed by those who do not understand the language in which it is performed. At the time of its introduction in England, this objection furnished a triumphant argument to the interested and the insensible, and Addison seemed to think it was a conclusive one. "The practice," he says, "is a monstrous one, and the absurdity of it shows itself at first sight."* To those who do not

* Spectator, No. 18. The date of this number is March 21, 1710-11.

In the Tatler, No. 115, dated January 3, 1709-10, his friend, Sir Richard Steele, had spoken of the opera and the most distinguished opera singer of that day in the following terms: "I went on Friday last to the opera, and was surprised to find a thin house at so noble an entertainment, till I heard that the tumbler was not to make his appearance that night. For my own part I was fully satisfied with the sight of an actor, who by the grace and propriety of his action and gesture, does honour to a human figure as much as the other vilifies and degrades it. Every one will easily imagine I mean Signor Nicolini, who sets off the character he bears in an opera by his action, as much as he does the words of it by his voice. Every limb and every finger contribute to the part he acts, insomuch that a deaf man might go along with him in the sense of it. There is scarce a beautiful posture in an old statue, which he does not plant himself in, as the different circumstances of the story give occasion for it. He performs the most ordinary action in a manner suitable to the greatness of his character, and shows the prince even in the giving of a letter or the despatching of a message." He then complains, that, "Notwithstanding the *dignity and elegance of this entertainment*, Punchinello had the largest number of female spectators."

understand the words of the opera, certainly has the negative merit of offering nothing which is offensive, or which has a tendency to corrupt the morals; and if the dialogue were translated, the comparison, in point of purity and freedom from indelicacy, with that of the Beggar's Opera, or the dramatic productions of Otway and Congreve, would not be to its disadvantage.

The ridicule of the opera by Addison would have more weight as an argument, if another subject of his satire had not been the most distinguished master of that period, whose reputation time has placed upon a basis too firm to be affected now by praise or censure. We allude to the great composer, whom Addison qualified by the significant prefix *Mynheer* Handel.

No one would deny that a knowledge of the language adds much to the entertainment which the opera affords; but without this advantage, those who enjoy the performances at a concert may surely find great gratification in being present at the representation of an opera. The orchestra must necessarily be a full one, and performers, who are competent to execute the music of the piece, must be above mediocrity. The composition of the overture and of the accompaniments of the airs and chorusses are not less elaborate nor less calculated for effect, than the most brilliant concertos or symphonies, with this very great advantage in favour of the music of the opera, that the action, the character, the costumes, and the scenery assist the unpractised hearer in understanding the sentiment or passion which the composer intended to express in music. "In addition to the gratification to the ear from the performance of music at a concert," says a celebrated writer on music, "the imagination may divert itself with the idea, that a fine adagio is a tragical story, an andante or grazioso an elegant narrative of some tranquil event, and an allegro a tale of merriment." But we apprehend such active imaginations are rarely to be met with, and that the generality of mankind need something more marked and striking to convey to them those distinct impressions, designed to be conveyed by the action and plot of the opera. If one would understand all the details of the piece, and judge of the correctness of the tones and expression of the singers, he can easily procure the *libretto* of the opera, which contains the words of the piece.

The merit of the music of the opera, by raising it above the comprehension of those who care for no pleasure which cannot be obtained at less expense than a little attention and thought, is, we conceive, the principal cause of its being so little enjoyed. Judgment on all musical performances is indeed so often pro-

nounced with so much promptness and decision, as to indicate, that it is generally believed to be a subject within the competence of every hearer, whether he has studied it or not.

We have heard it indeed gravely asserted, so gravely that a doubt of the accuracy of the affirmation would have been treated with scorn or derision, that that was the best music which pleased the most uncultivated ears. By the same reasoning it might proved that the dog, who recognised his master's portrait in a gallery of pictures, was a better judge of the correctness of the drawing, the management of the light, the relief of the figure, the combination of the colours, and the various other particulars which constitute the merit of a painting, than an artist who had spent his life in the study and practice of the art.

Music may be defined to be the language of inarticulate sound, just as painting is the language of colours; and one receives a greater or less number of ideas from a specimen of either of these arts, in proportion to the attention he has bestowed upon the art itself. If we form an opinion of a painting at first sight, we pronounce it with some degree of caution, and a reference to the opinion of others who have more skill in the art; and if we are examining a production of an artist of acknowledged talent, we distrust any unfavourable impressions we may have received, and are willing to believe that they may be erroneous, rather than doubt the skill of the artist. Not so with musical performances. Every thing in music which is not understood is condemned. No delicacy or reserve restrains the unqualified censure which falls upon the composition, which does not at once excite, or amuse, or lull the hearer. In some of the arts, "omne ignotum pro magnifico est;" in music the sentiment is reversed. Should the opera succeed in this country, as we earnestly hope it may, we expect to witness a revolution in the opinions of the community on this subject. The greatest connoisseur that ever existed could not enjoy a fine opera at its first or second representation as much as at the third or fourth. Most musical productions of this class are of a nature not to be correctly estimated but from repeated performances. Since experience has shown that compositions, respecting the merit of which there can be no question, because it has been decided by the sentiment of nations, are heard at first with little interest, but upon repetition become more and more pleasing, some little doubts may arise as to the musical infallibility of an uninstructed audience.

The success of the opera in every country in which it has been introduced, has been proportional to the progress of the

people in refinement and cultivation. Addison himself bore this unwilling testimony in its favour, and expressed his surprise that it was not "the taste of the rabble, but of persons of the greatest politeness;" and in general it has been found necessary to connect with these exquisite musical performances, that singular and peculiarly French invention, the ballet, in order to make the whole exhibition palatable to the majority of the audience. It is a little remarkable, that those who frequent the Italian Opera in Paris are satisfied without this unnatural combination, and listen to the compositions of Mozart and Rossini with as deep interest, and applaud them with as much discernment, as any audience on the other side the Alps.

An inquiry may occur to our readers, how the community at large are interested in the success of the opera. Music, it may be said, is at best only a means of amusement, and the care of our public amusements may be safely left to those who support them, provided they do not interfere with the peace and good order of society. We are of a different opinion. The amusements of any society are indications of its character, and they have a reciprocal action upon that character. The bull-fights of Spain, and the more brutal pugilistic combats of England certainly have a tendency to make those who frequent them any thing rather than more polished and intellectual. It has been sometimes argued in favour of the latter, that the actors of these scenes and the hosts of their imitators and admirers, constitute a valuable material to be worked up, as occasion requires, into the proper machines for the supply of the army and navy. We cannot believe, however, that these barbarous exercises make men braver or more hardy. Our American sailors have not been found inferior in these qualities to the stoutest "hearts of oak," when an opportunity for comparison has occurred; and we have as yet no meetings at the Fives' Court, nor public milling-matches.

Men, women, and children have always had, and always will have, amusements of some sort or other. Those, then, whose example influences the manners of the age, are bound to patronise and support a species of entertainment, which, to say the least, is not liable to any exception.

We have expressed our apprehensions, that the establishment of the opera in New York might not prove that it was a judicious experiment, and that there was little hope of its being a permanent one. The attempt will have been made, however, under more favourable circumstances than could have been reasonably

expected. The company consists of performers of more talent than any which will probably ever be collected again in this country. We do not know indeed whether any city in Europe at the present time can boast of a union of more distinguished artists than the corps at New York. We speak of the entire company. There are no doubt individuals performing in the different opera houses abroad more distinguished than any now in this country. We must except Garcia, however, the principal tenor voice. Garcia was born in Seville, in 1779, and spent the early part of his life in his native country. He is known to the musical public, not only as a singer, but as the author of several successful operas. The Caliph of Bagdad, one of his early compositions, was produced in Naples in 1812, and in Paris in 1817. In both of these cities it had the greatest success. The "Amante Astuto," another opera of his, has been performed several times in New York, unfortunately for the author, immediately after the Barbiere di Siviglia of Rossini, the characters and plot of which so nearly resemble it, that it received less applause than it would have done under circumstances which would not have suggested so immediate a comparison with this popular opera. To an excellent voice he unites the highest cultivation of that organ, and a consummate knowledge of music. His style is a florid one, but where there is so much taste and variety of embellishment as there are in his performances, we would hardly have his ornaments abridged. His merits as an actor are scarcely less than as a singer. He never loses sight of the character he represents; his carriage is graceful and easy, and his action chaste and appropriate.

His daughter, Signorina Garcia, is obviously the Prima Donna of this company. This lady is said to be only eighteen years of age, and, judging from her appearance, we should not suspect there was any inaccuracy in this statement. Her figure is small, but well proportioned; and her features, if they be not beautiful, are highly interesting, and have a peculiarly lively and playful expression. She made her *début* with great success at the London Opera House in June, last year, in the part of Rosina in the Barbiere di Siviglia. In New York she has appeared in the same character, in Rosalia, in the Amante Astuto, and in Tancredi in the piece of the same name, which, perhaps, of all Rossini's serious operas, has been the most deservedly popular. Signorina Garcia's voice is a low soprano; its range is not very extensive, but the quality of her tone is exquisitely sweet. Her low notes particularly are full and mellow, and distinctly audible in the chorusses, or when accompanied by the full orchestra. Nature

has done much for this lady, but she has been fortunate in having for a master one who is himself among the most accomplished singers of the age, and the advantage has not been thrown away upon her. Native taste and sensibility to the highest musical expression are apparent in every passage she executes, and we cannot help fancying, that, had her situation in early life been very different, she would have discovered these qualities in a high degree. No one who had the good fortune to hear her performance of the simple and touching air from the Orfeo of Gluck, *Che farò senza il mio Bene*, at the concert of the New York Philharmonic Society in December last, would hesitate in allowing, that she understood perfectly the meaning of the music, and that she succeeded entirely in conveying the full pathos of the air to the audience. Signorina Garcia promises too to be highly distinguished as an actress. In the part of Rosina, her arch and playful manner is precisely what the character requires, and no one, we think, could improve upon her style of acting the scene where she delivers Figuro the letter for the Count, which he was urging her to write, but which she had previously prepared; or the scene where she removes the doubts of her guardian, which her having written the letter gave occasion to.

If any evidence were wanting to prove the high reputation this lady has acquired in England, we think the following fact furnishes it. At the York Musical Festival, which took place the last summer, the aggregate amount paid the principal vocal performers was £2100. Of this amount, Madame Caradori received £262 10*s.*; Braham the same sum; Miss Stephens £219; and Mademoiselle Garcia £336. This was within three months after she had made her first appearance in the Opera House.

Madame Barbiere, who made her *début* in New York, in the part of Amenaide, was educated at the Conservatoire in Paris, and it is not remarkable, therefore, that her style of singing has something in it of French manner. Her success thus far has been brilliant, and to say that she has succeeded, when the comparison was so necessary with Signorina Garcia, is to give her high praise.

Garcia, Junior, has fine natural powers, but he has much to learn of the management of the voice, and there is obviously opportunity for improvement in his whole deportment and manner on the stage. We understand that this gentleman, as well as Madame Barbiere, made his first appearance on the stage in this country.

Angrisani, the principal bass voice, deserves a longer notice than our limits allow us to give him. His name is familiar to

those who are interested enough in dramatic music, to look over the regular notices of the performances at the opera-houses in the European cities. His fine voice and his thorough knowledge of music render this performer's services eminently effective, and we wish those who think that the excellence of a bass singer is proportional to the volume of sound he utters, could have an opportunity of hearing his mellow and smooth tones, which no accompaniment or chorus can render inaudible, and which may be listened to when there is no accompaniment, without pain. The other members of this corps are worthy associates of the eminent professors we have spoken of, and sustain the subordinate parts of the several pieces, which have been performed with more than ordinary spirit and capacity.

We will not close these remarks without expressing the hope that our city may enjoy the rich musical treat, which is now affording so much pleasure to the amateurs of New York, before the return of the corps to Europe; and we trust, that an orchestra will be collected from the profession in this city, which will properly support the company, and thus remove the imputation which has been thrown upon us, of not possessing taste and talent enough to authorize Garcia to visit Boston for the purpose of performing a few operas. We hope that private differences and professional rivalry may not interfere with an object so desirable to the musical part of our community.

When Philipps visited the United States a few years since, he was received with greater enthusiasm, and probably left the country with more solid proofs of our admiration, than any performer who ever before came among us. Shall it be said, that an operatic corps, any one of whom would be injured by a comparison with Philipps, could not venture to visit Boston, after having crossed the Atlantic to gratify the American public?

We have heard from authority on which we could rely, that so sanguine were Garcia's expectations of success in this country, that it was his intention to establish himself here the rest of his life. If such were his purpose, we sincerely hope he may not be diverted from it by the coldness or insensibility of the lovers of music in this section of the country.

MISCELLANY.

THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

XXII. DUTIES ON IMPORTS.

Of the public revenue, that portion which is raised by duties on the importation of foreign commodities, is raised in a manner most consistent with the general welfare. It is paid by the consumer in the price of the commodity; and whether he buys it or not is a matter of choice with him, and not of necessity; for every thing of necessity may be produced among ourselves.

Of the duties on the importation of foreign commodities, those, which are imposed upon such commodities as, with the acquisition of skill and dexterity, we can produce with as little labour at home as they are produced with abroad, are the kind of duties, which, while they contribute to the public revenue, operate at the same time most to the encouragement of the public industry.

A high duty on particular commodities to promote the home production of them, although it diminishes their importation, yet, as other commodities take their place, it does not diminish the general amount of imports.

The imports are always equal to the net proceeds of the exports, and the exports are equal to the foreign demand.

The foreign demand is regulated by the foreign want for consumption; and this is not affected by the fact of whether we consume more or less of foreign manufactures.

Therefore, as the diminished importation of particular commodities only changes the objects of investment abroad, a high duty for the encouragement of home manufacture has no tendency to diminish the public revenue, but on the contrary to augment it, by the additions which the manufacture in its progress causes to be made to the exports.

For while we continue to export the same staples to the same extent as before, the new branches of industry arising from the encouragement which the duties afford, furnish other products in addition to the old ones to be exported, by which in return the amount of imports, and consequently the public revenue, are augmented.

Although, by the effect of the increase of duties, which causes home products to supplant foreign products in the home market, the price of them to the consumer is in the first instance enhanced; yet this causes such a competition among the home producers, that the price of them to the consumer is soon reduced below what it was before the duties were increased; and the permanent reduction a great deal more than compensates him for the temporary enhancement.

The new branches of industry, to which the increase of duties gives rise, leads to an increased pruduction in all existing branches.

For, by the products of the new branches, the quantity of circulating capital is augmented ; and as much as the products of the new branches add to its quantity, so much more will there be to be given in exchange for the products of existing branches, and the demand for these products will be in that proportion greater.

However low the wages of labour may be in foreign countries, and however cheap we may import commodities from them in consequence of it, nevertheless it would be injurious to the interest of the nation to import any such commodities as the nation possesses natural advantages for producing within itself, equal to those possessed by the foreign countries from which they might be imported.

If it were for our interest to import any such commodity, merely because the cost by importation would be less than the cost by home poduction, it would be still more for our interest, for the same reason, to import it if we could to cost nothing. To be sure it would, will it be said.—But let us see if that would be the case.

Suppose, for instance, we were to import a sufficiency of wheat, free of cost, for the supply of all those, who now depend for their supply upon the surplus of our own agriculture. The consequence would be, that the farmer, no longer able to sell his wheat, would suffer the privation of all those comforts and enjoyments, which it before procured for him. But the farmer would not be the only person to suffer. The manufacturer, the mechanic, and the merchant would feel its effects. They depend more upon the agricultural class for employment and business, than upon all the other classes together ; and this class being no longer able to sell the chief products of its industry, would be disabled from contributing towards the support of the other classes, by the purchase of the products of their industry. Thus general embarrassment and distress would be extended, by such importation, through all the divisions of industry in the community.

If therefore, as it appears in this case, it would not be for our advantage to import any such article as we produce among ourselves, even though it cost us nothing, it surely could not be for our advantage to import such articles, merely because it came a little cheaper by importation than by home production.

We will now take another article, not necessary to subsistence, like wheat, but only to comfort, shoes, for example, and suppose them, like wheat, to be imported free of cost. The consequence would be that the whole class, who support themselves by the production of that article would be thrown out of employment, and the community would lose more by the loss of that branch of productive industry, than they would gain by having their shoes for nothing.

If any one imagines that the individuals of this class, thus thrown out of employment, may employ themselves in the other branches of industry, and that their labour in these other branches would be equally productive to the nation, he lies under a great mistake.

By having this class enter into them, these other branches of industry would find the demand for their products diminished. They would lose the demand for that portion of their products, which this class before took up as consumers. This would cause a diminution of their profits. And their profits would not only be reduced by the loss of this class of consumers; but they would be still further reduced by having these consumers converted into producers, which would cause the reduced profits to be divided among a greater number.

There is no existing branch of industry, which does not, without such accession, already supply a greater quantity of its products than is demanded for consumption. When this is the case, no additional production would take place in consequence of such accession to the numbers of those before employed; and the only effect of it would be, therefore, to diminish profits and relax industry.

From this case it is clear, as in the former case of wheat, that we can be no gainers by the importation of any commodity, which we can produce with as little labour at home as its production requires abroad, however cheap it may come, even though it come for nothing.

It would be for our interest that no commodity should be imported, which we possess within ourselves natural advantages for producing, equal to those of the country from which the commodity is imported, while we are only deficient in a certain degree of skill, which with suitable encouragement we should soon acquire, and which when acquired would enable us to produce with as little labour as the foreign country. In producing these commodities at home, a saving to the whole amount of the expenses of the foreign importation would ultimately result to the consumer, and a gain to the nation of the sum total of the value of the commodities produced.

It is no good argument against the encouragement of home production, that the wages of labour are lower in foreign countries than in our own, and that therefore it would be cheaper to import, unless it were for the general welfare that the labouring classes in the country, who compose the mass of the nation, should be reduced to the same degraded condition, in which they are in some of the states of Europe. And for this surely none will contend.

In this country, where subsistence is cheap and easily procured, it requires the stimulus of high wages to call labour into action.

And it is only by measures, which render productive industry more profitable, by securing to it the supply of the home market, that the demand for labour is increased. This raises the wages, and calls a greater quantity into employment; and the greater the quantity of labour employed, the more rapid will be the production of wealth; and the higher the wages the more equal will be the distribution of wealth.

By the importation of foreign commodities, such as our soil, climate, and industry are adapted to produce, and such as we should produce if we did not import them, national industry is discouraged and the progress of wealth retarded.

But by the importation of all such commodities, as our soil, climate, and industry are not adapted to produce, national industry is encouraged, and the progress of wealth accelerated.

By the importation of teas, coffee, silks, and other luxuries, wealth is promoted in two ways. First, by the luxuries being placed within reach, a desire is excited to possess them, which stimulates to the additional labour, necessary for obtaining them ; and in the products of this labour given in exchange for them a profit is realized, which is so much added to the commercial capital. Secondly, the additional labours, to which the desire of obtaining these luxuries stimulates, contributes to the formation of those habits of industry, which commonly have for their ultimate object that accumulation, upon which depends the general increase of wealth.

The capital of a nation arises from the employment of its labour, and however much the political institutions of a country may favour the equal distribution of property, capital will accumulate in some hands while it will not in others. Thus one portion of the community will possess the capital, and another will perform the labour.

Now it would be highly for the benefit of the whole, to have such a state of things exist, that they who possess the capital, should find it more to their profit to employ with it the labour of their own country, than to employ with it the labour of foreign countries. For then our capital, instead of going to foreign countries for the support of labour there, would remain at home to encourage, employ, and support our own labour, that labour from which alone our whole wealth is derived.

But as the degraded labour of some of the European states is cheaper than the labour of this country, our capital will go off to the support of this foreign labour, unless the government, by the adequate protection of national industry, renders it more advantageous for the possessors of capital to employ and support labour with it at home.

The high wages of labour in this country are nearly connected with the permanence of our political institutions and the progress of the general welfare. Upon high wages depend the more equal distribution of property, the means of more general education, and the more extensive diffusion of useful knowledge. And the support of these wages will mainly depend upon the degree of protection, which government may afford, to the various pursuits of national industry.

H. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

INSPIRATION.

Glorious creatures! Shapes of light!
Where are now those looks of power;
Where the eyes that glistened bright,
In my visionary hour?

Ye were fair, and ye were high;
Far, too far away from earth;
Shadowy pinions hovered nigh,
When my Fancy gave you birth.

I was in a trance of Heaven;
Spirits then would come and go;
Where the eternal walls were riven,
Rushed a dazzling overflow.

I was then, on sounding wings,
Borne along the living air;
All of bright and beauteous things,
All of great and good were there.

Not a sound, but seemed to tell
Harmony and holy love;
Every echo gently fell,
Like an answer from above.

Then the Soul assumed its reign;
Then it stood erect and bold;
All it sought so long in vain,
Then in torrents round it rolled.

With a full and sudden rush,
Thought, and Light, and Knowledge came,
Like an instantaneous gush
From the purest fount of flame.

Thick as atoms in the sun,
Dancing on the dusty way,
Thousand sparkles seemed to run,
Meeting, mingling into day.

'T was the Spirit's jubilee;
Passion sprang, and rent his chain;
Mounting into ecstacy,
Bright, and free from every stain.

Visions, many as the stars,
Glowing like a summer even,
Proud as victors on their cars,
Heralded my way to Heaven.

SONNET.

O Love! thou art a pure and holy thing,
And none should ever dare to breathe thy name,
Whose hearts are lit not with as bright a flame,
As sunward burns around the eagle's wing:
O! let me not unworthy offerings bring
To one, whose all-commanding power can tame
Each vagrant wish, and stamp the brand of shame
Where the least stains of earthly passion cling:
Then let me gather from my inmost heart
Pure feelings that from infancy have slept,
Silent as waters in a hidden well;
And to the gentle offering then impart
The fire and tears that Sappho breathed and wept,
When her faint cittern gave its dying swell.

P.

SONG.

Daughter of Beauty, Gulnare!
Queen of the delicate graces,
Whose smile is a minstrel, to charm away care,
And lighten wherever it traces;
Health to thy cheek! where the mantle of morn
Flushes, with rosiest tints to adorn.

Long may the zone that entwines
Purity, mildness, affection,
Shed the same lustre as constantly shines
Around thee in angel perfection;
And long may the smile, that illumines thy brow,
Live on as it does in its loveliness now.

The lily may fade from thy cheek,
With freshness no longer adorning;
The rose that envelopes its whiteness, may seek
To take back her mantle of morning;
Yet still will love's tenderness beam from thine eye,
And ask for that homage no heart can deny.

The ringlet may blanch, where it bends
Over eyes of cerulean hue,
That melt with the softness that young Luna lends,
To mellow her pathway of blue;
Yet who would not love thee, and sweetly repose
In the bosom where true love with constancy grows!

R. D.

THE BUBBLE AND BALLOON.

..... I slumbered as the sun went down.
'T was a rich summer evening, and the light
Lay pillowed on the mountains, and the clouds
Unwilling to depart. But as it went,
And drew its radiance home from earth and heaven,
There was a sadness came around my thoughts
Hallowing my visions.
I slept. But these ineffable bright hues
Were busy with my fancy. I dreamt. Off
In the warm ocean of the western sky,
I saw two beautiful strange orbs, that seemed
To sail among the zephyrs, and to catch
The glories of the air in which they bathed.
The one was delicate as thought—just seen,
Clear as the eyes of angels, and as fair;
And round its thin circumference there went
The shifting wonders of the rainbow,—fire
And sky and ocean, landscapes, men and trees,
And blossoms and gold fruits, crystals and gems,
Those thousand, thousand luxuries of light
That play upon a bubble's gossamer,
And make that brilliant trifle of the earth
The frailest and most beautiful 'neath heaven.
The fairy creature rolled along in joy.

Its fellow seemed of different element.
It boasted no such glories in its course,
Miraculous, transparencies, or change.
The dull light of departing day was all
That kissed its silken canopy, and gave
One solitary hue to all its sphere.

Wrapt in high wonder with these lustrous things,
What was their make, and where their journeying
In such delightful company; and how
A very bubble should have lived so long
To flaunt its splendours in the upper sky,
Were mysteries in my fevered brain.

Still flashed those glories o'er that lesser globe
Never the same, and still more beautiful
At every winged return—hues that would make
The limner weep and wonder—so laid on
By that sweet artist, Nature, as if all
The treasures of her beauties wantoned there!

And now some daring being of the earth
Seemed hanging to the other—buoyed aloft

And reddening in the sunbeams—stretching out
His little arms among the clouds, as glad
That he had soared so high above his kind.

Sudden a deathly change was on them both!
Amid its pride and glittering, that thin sphere,
Riding beside the sun in pageantry,
Exploded on the air, and vanished;
And from the crimson clouds the proud balloon
Headlong, precipitate to earth, came down
Dragging its master shuddering to death!

Panting I issued from my frenzied dream.
And bears it not a lesson to the soul?
How like a bubble is this gay, brave world
To him who ponders on its shifting fate
In contemplation's holy reverie!
How beautiful it hangs in endless space
Catching from this gold sun its countless hues,
And by the mysteries of the Infinite
Playing, before a witnessing universe,
The drama of its colours! Oh! how fair
The tints of beauty glow upon its shell!
How generations of bright things come out
And glitter on its surface, to grow dim
And fade before some other fantasy
Of more complete enchantment. How it rolls
Its glancing splendours to the air, as though
Its hues would be eternal and unchanged;
Until in all its peerless promises,
When 't has outdone the rainbow in its pride,
It bursts amid its glory in the heavens,
And melts upon the element!

Are ye ambitious? Look at that dim sphere,
And him it has enthroned. See ye there
Ambition and its creature. He has stepped
Into the car of greatness; and, upborne
By plaudits and vainglory, sweeps away
Above the grosser regions of the world
Into the sunlit provinces of place,
Until his nature reels at his vast height.
He flings to earth those grave appendages
That may keep down his rising, and buoyed up
By all unholy, deadly attributes, he floats
In solitary power among the clouds!
But here are no companions, and the air
Falls chill and desolate around him, till

Grown desperate in his wildness, he forgets
The world below him that the storms have veiled,
And sees above the light for which he pants.
Infatuated wretch! one effort more!
Higher or death!—The bubble bursts, and down,
Shrieking and mad, through clouds and wrecks of pride,
Dashed to the earth he spurned before,
He lies a mangled corpse upon the hills,
A thing for men to point and shudder at!

G. M.

VANITY OF EARTHLY THINGS.

THE dew-drop in the morning,
That glitters on the rose;
The gorgeous cloud adorning
Day's soft and silent close;

The wreathed smoke ascending
In winter's frosty air;
The brilliant gems depending,
The ice-clad branches bear;

The echo of the mountain,
That dies amid the trees;
The murmuring of the fountain,
Lost in the fitful breeze;

The fragrance flowers are flinging
The summer garden o'er;
The notes the lark is singing,
When heavenward he doth soar;

All these are transitory,
And but a moment live;
And such is human glory,
That doth vain man deceive.

Its pageant that imposes
So much upon the eye,
Evanishing, discloses
Its empty vanity.

All earthly things are fleeting,
However bright they seem;
Yet still we love their cheating,
And still enjoy the dream.

Ah! soon from death awaking,
Eternity's broad light,
Awful, upon us breaking,
Shall clear our mental sight.

To earth's false joys alluring,
Our hearts no more be given;
All solid bliss enduring
Is found alone in heaven.

T.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Napoleon and the Grand Army in Russia; or a Critical Examination of Count Philip de Segur's Work. By General GOURGAND, late First Officer of Ordnance, and Aid-de-camp to the Emperor Napoleon. Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo.

GENERAL GOURGAND was an officer of considerable rank, actively employed by Napoleon, and in his confidence. He comes forward to defend his deceased master, and his fellow soldiers, against the covert attacks of General Segur, whom he treats with very little ceremony. It would seem, that M. Segur was a sort of household drudge of the emperor's; a general whose business it was to run before his master, and see that his quarters were in proper trim; who enjoyed the advantage of seeing him often as he passed through the antechamber, and was upon confidential terms with him in all matters which had relation to his imperial Majesty's personal conveniences. But General Gourgand probably pushes this thing a little too far. He is evidently determined to find all possible fault with Segur and his book; of course, whatever he says, must be believed with a good deal of qualification. It is impossible to deny that he impugns the authority of M. de Segur in some important, and many interesting particulars; but we think we do justice to both parties in deciding, that General Gourgand does little more than confirm a suspicion, which General Segur's book can hardly fail to excite, to wit, that his memory is no better than his imagination; that for many very entertaining and particular anecdotes, he should have given credit to that general fund of camp gossip, to which every man in the army had common access; and that where a lamentable hiatus was likely to occur in his information, he would fill it by the help of his invention rather than disappoint his reader.

Hints for the Improvement of Early Education, and Nursery Discipline. Salem, 1826. 12mo. pp. 168.

For the peculiar satisfaction with which we have read this new edition of 'Hints on Education' we are no doubt partly indebted to the very beautiful style in which it is printed; but more to the intrinsic excellence of the work, to the deep religious feeling, which pervades every part of it, to the sound principles exhibited of the science which it professes to treat, and to the practical and happy illustration of them by direct references to particular cases. It cannot fail to be an interesting and useful book to all intelligent parents who would gather what can be learned from others' experience of this important subject. The work is divided into sixteen short chapters, each devoted to some particular topic, which it treats exclusively. We do not regret that we have no room for an extended review of the work, because we can approve it as a whole, and do not at present feel under any necessity of making exceptions. As a specimen of the style and manner we quote the chapter on "Rewards and Punishments," and hope those of our readers, who feel an interest in the subject, will speedily make themselves acquainted with the remaining parts of the work.

"Rewards and punishments, praise and blame, are the main supports of authority, and its effect will greatly depend on our dispensing these with wisdom and caution.

"A very frequent recourse to rewards does but lessen their effect, and weaken the mind by accustoming it to an unnecessary stimulus; while punishment, too freely administered, will fret the temper, or, which is worse, break the spirit.

"Locke remarks, 'that those children, who are the most chastised, rarely prove the best men; and, that punishment, if it be not productive of good, will certainly be the cause of much injury.'

"It is better, therefore, if possible, to effect our purposes by encouragement and rewards, rather than correction. But if this be impracticable, we should still keep in view, that punishment, being in itself an evil, and intended simply to deter from what is wrong, and to induce submission and penitence, ought never to be extended beyond what is absolutely necessary to secure these objects, and, unless inflicted by parents, or those who are possessed of the first authority, should be of the mildest and least alarming character.

"Not only the rod, but severe reproaches, rough handling, tying to bed-posts, the hasty slap, the dark closet, and every thing that might terrify the imagination, are to be excluded from the nursery. If a nurse be under the necessity of punishing a child, she may confine him for a time in a light room, remove him from

table, or allow him simply to suffer the natural consequences of his offence. If he intentionally hurt his brother with a whip, the whip must for a time be taken from him. If he betray impatience and selfishness at table, let him be served the last, and with the least indulgence. Such gentle measures, administered with decision, will generally succeed, for it is much more *the certainty and immediate execution*, than the *severity*, of punishment, that will avail. A child, who is *sure* of being confined a quarter of an hour, if he strike his companion, is less likely to commit the offence than another who has only the apprehension that he *may* be detained an hour; for the hope of escaping with impunity adds no little force to temptation. Correction, also, is not to be unnecessarily delayed or prolonged. Delay renders it less effectual, and more trying to the temper; whilst any needless continuance, in any way, increases the evils, and lessens the benefits, which might result from it.

"There is much, in education, to be done by watching our opportunities, by acting at the right season. With most children there is an era, and this often takes place as they are emerging from babyhood, in which a struggle is made for the mastery,—in which it is to be decided who is to rule,—the child, or those who are placed over him. At such a juncture, in order to determine the matter, and firmly to establish authority, it will be necessary to employ vigorous measures, and to suppress the first risings of a rebellious and disobedient spirit, by punishment, decisive; and repeated till submission on the part of the child, and victory on that of the parent, are completely secured. So great is the importance of these contests; so great is the difficulty of carrying them on with the temper, and the union of firmness and affection, which they require, that it is desirable they should be conducted only by a parent. Punishment is more often to be inflicted simply as the *consequence* of a fault, and not with the idea, that it must be prolonged till the particular action required has been performed.

"A child is desired, for instance, to put up his play-things, and he refuses with so much self-will that his attendant cannot overlook it, and is under the necessity of telling him that he must be confined in the next room for a quarter of an hour; but let her beware of adding, that there he shall stay till he *will* put them up. This would serve merely to engage in the combat his pride and his obstinacy. At the end of the quarter of an hour she should release him from his imprisonment, without waiting to make conditions for his future obedience.

"It has been said, indeed, that submission, on the part of the offender, is the object of punishment, and such submission as may entitle him to receive complete forgiveness. When a child has been corrected, we should not rest satisfied till this object has been

attained; but it is not, in all cases, to be expected, either during the continuance of the punishment, or immediately afterwards.

"A well trained child, if affectionately admonished after correction is over, and not being irritated at the idea that it may be continued, will generally yield at once; but it is not considered necessary to put this always to the proof. He has committed a fault, and has suffered the consequences. Here it is often wisest to leave the affair for the time, choosing the *earliest* favourable opportunity, when he has more perfectly recovered himself, for receiving his submission, and assuring him of forgiveness.

"If his attendant have conducted herself in the right spirit, he will have felt the force of her correction, though he may not have shown it at the time. The next day, if she desire him to put up his play-things, he will, pretty certainly, obey with more than common alacrity.

"When a child has been punished, he should be restored as soon as possible to favour; and when he has received forgiveness, treated as if nothing had happened. He may be affectionately reminded of his fault in private, as a warning for the future; but, after peace has been made, to upbraid him with it, especially in the presence of others, is almost a breach of honour, and, certainly, a great unkindness. Under any circumstances, to reproach children in company is equally useless and painful to them, and is generally done from irritability of temper, with little view to their profit.

"We are to remember that *shame* will not effectually deter children from what is wrong; and that in employing it too much as an instrument of education, we have reason to apprehend we may lead them to act from the fear of man rather than from that of God. Every thing, too, which may in the least injure the characters of children, is to be strictly avoided. To have the *name* of a naughty child will produce so disheartening an effect upon the mind, that the ill consequences may probably be felt through life. It is on this account desirable, that tutors, governesses, and nurses, be cautious of enlarging upon the faults of those under their care to any but the parents.

"Blame, and even praise, are to be dispensed with nearly as much caution as punishments and rewards; for a child may be called 'good,' 'naughty,' 'troublesome,' 'kind,' or 'unkind,' till either his temper will be kept in continual irritation, or he will listen with perfect indifference.

"A child must not be punished or reproved from the impulse of temper; we may regulate his actions, but we cannot hope to subdue his will, or improve his disposition, by a display of our own wilfulness and irritability; for our example will more than counteract the good effects of our correction. If irritated, we should

wait till we are cool, before we inflict punishment, and then do it as a duty, in exact proportion to the real faultiness of the offender; not to the degree of vexation he has occasioned ourselves. A child should be praised, reproved, rewarded, and corrected, not according to the *consequences*, but according to the *motives*, of his actions—solely with reference to the right or wrong intention which has influenced him.

"Children, therefore, should not be punished for mere accidents, but mildly warned against similar carelessness in future. Whereas some people show much greater displeasure with a child for accidentally overthrowing the table, or breaking a piece of china, than for telling an untruth; or, if he hang his head, and will not show off in company, he is more blamed than for selfishness in the nursery. But does not such treatment arise from preferring our own gratification to the good of the child? and can we hope, by thus doing, to improve him in the government of his temper, or to instruct him in the true standard of right and wrong?

"Punishment, administered in anger, is no longer the discipline of love, but bears too much the character of revenging an injury, and will certainly excite in the sufferer a corresponding temper of mind. From fear, indeed, he may yield externally, but the feelings of his heart would lead him to resentment rather than to penitence and submission. And let it never be forgotten, that if we desire to perform our duties to children, it is not to their outward conduct, but to the heart, that we must direct our chief attention.

"To punish with effect requires decision, and sometimes courage. If, in addition to this, our punishments carry with them the stamp of love; if they are inflicted with an undisturbed serenity of temper, with a simple view to the good of the offender, 'not for our pleasure, but for his profit,' they will rarely fail in accomplishing the intended purpose; for children have a quick sense of the motives that influence us, and their hearts are not unfrequently as much softened, and their affections as powerfully called forth by such correction, as by the most gratifying rewards that could be bestowed upon them."

INTELLIGENCE.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF LITERATURE.

From a London paper, we learn, that at a meeting of the Royal Society of Literature, the Secretary read a communication from Mr Sharon Turner, containing a further elucidation of the following principles, advanced by the author in a former paper, respecting the origin of the resemblances and diversities of languages:

1. "That there are affinities existing in most of the known languages of the world, which cannot, with any reasonable probability, be attributed to chance."

2. "That these affinities occur in terms which are likely to have been used by the earliest progenitors of mankind, because they express the most endearing feelings, or the most common ideas; but that they exist in every language, like so many fragments, more or less insulated, amid a general mass of the greatest diversities."

3. "That in endeavouring to trace the historical causation both of these affinities and these diversities, facts and reasonings having been adduced to suggest, that an early disruption and dispersion of the primitive society of the human race, while it was existing as an unseparated association, were competent to produce these phenomena; and no literary record having been transmitted to us, nor the tradition of any other cause, we may satisfactorily adopt the Mosaic narration of the confusion of Babel, as sufficient to account for the affinities and diversities, which all languages will be found to exhibit when compared with each other."

Mr Turner supports his principles by copious tables of words, illustrative of the affinities of languages above alluded to.

NATIVES OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The natives of these islands are generally well made, and bear strong marks of activity and muscular vigour; they are in general somewhat larger than the Javanese, and bear some affinity in the features of their faces to the Malays; their noses are, however, more prominent; and their cheek bones not so high, nor their skins so dark. Their hair is of a jet black, made glossy by the constant application of cocoa-nut oil, as is the custom in all India, and drawn together and knotted on the top in the manner of the Malays. The women display great taste in the arrangement and decorations of their hair, which they secure with silver or golden bodkins, the heads of which are frequently composed of precious stones.

Great numbers of the Chinese reside in Manilla; and it is to their proverbial industry, that Luçonia owes a considerable part of her revenue. They cultivate the sugar cane and indigo plant, and manufacture them. They farm some important branches of revenue, which increase under their management. A large proportion of the exports of the islands finds its way to the China market through their means, and the imports from that country are proportionally great; the streets are lined with their warehouses and shops, and filled with merchandise

of various descriptions. Their simple mode of living, regulated by the most severe economy, insures them ultimate wealth, as their profits are great and certain.

The staple exports of Manilla are sugar, indigo, coffee, and cotton; of the former the mean annual export of three years, ending in 1817, was seventy-five thousand piculs; and of indigo one thousand and sixty quintals were exported in 1817. The exportation of indigo has since greatly increased. The production of coffee is yet in its infancy, but is rapidly increasing. The cotton is of a fine silky texture, and very white, but of short staple. Some camphor and raw silk are also exported to the United States and Europe. *White's Voyage.*

VARIETIES.

Population of the State of New York.—The whole population by the returns of the last year, amount to one million six hundred and sixteen thousand four hundred and fifty eight; making a gain during the last five years, of two hundred and forty-two thousand six hundred and forty-eight.

Latitude and Longitude of the Capitol at Washington.—By a report made to both houses of the national legislature, in 1822, by Mr William Lambert, who had been appointed by the President for that purpose, it appears that the latitude of the centre of the Capitol, by observation, is 38° 52′ 45″ north; and its longitude from Greenwich 75° 55′ 30″ west; and from Paris 79° 15′ 41″ west.

Law Tracts.—P. Thomson, of Washington, has in press, and will publish in the course of a few weeks, a collection of the tracts, essays, and correspondence on the improvement of our jurisprudence, which have been elicited by Mr Sampson's well known discourse on the history of the common law. The volume will contain Mr Sampson's Discourse, with a large and valuable correspondence from some of the most distinguished men of the age, as well as several tracts of great merit and interest, by learned and able lawyers and scholars, many of whom are now in high public stations. *Athenæum Magazine.*

Flora of Brazil.—A new scientific work, under this title, by M. Auguste de St Hilaire, is about to appear in Paris. Baron Humboldt has made his report on it to the Institute in the most flattering terms.

Göthe, in his eightieth year, has just republished his celebrated Werter, so popular in Germany half a century ago. He brings it forth once more, enriched with a prologue of a sentence or two, of which the following is a translation:

"Once more, O *shade* so much lamented! thou darest to venture in the broad glare of day! You trip over a fresh field of flowers to throw yourself in my way, and are not afraid to look me in my face, as if you still existed in the fresh morning of your life! My destiny has been to remain on earth—and thine to quit it; thou hast passed away like a shadow, nor hast thou lost much by it."

Quarterly Review.—After the next publication of the Quarterly Review, Mr Coleridge retires from the editorship, to give himself more entirely up to his increasing professional duties; and his literary place is to be supplied by Mr Lockhart, the author of several well known popular works, and son-in-law to Sir Walter Scott.

Congress of Panama.—Upon the subject of the contemplated congress at Panama, the London Courier of December 9th, observes: "We should not be surprised to find the latter government [the United States] in the plenitude of its republican dignity, declining an honour of so questionable a nature, emanating from the younger branches of the democratic family of the New World. The United States have shown on many occasions, that, notwithstanding their republican sentiments, and their occasional boast of republican simplicity, there prevails no inconsiderable portion of that attachment to form and etiquette which is supposed to belong only to the ancient monarchies of Europe. With this feeling, they will probably think that they ought to be placed at the head of any federative assembly, called together for purposes common to the political interests of North and South America. They may even shrink from an acquiescence, which would seem to imply that they were incapable of defending their own independence against the imaginary aggressions on the part of Europe, without acceding to this system of mutual support."

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

AGRICULTURE.

Memoirs of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture; containing communications on various subjects in Husbandry and Rural Affairs. 8vo. Vol. V. Price $2. Philadelphia. R. H. Small.

ASTRONOMY.

Exercises on the Terrestrial Globe. With Questions and Problems, for the Use of Families and Schools, designed to accompany Gardner's Terrestrial Globe. By Samuel Worcester. 12mo. pp. 24. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

The New American Grammar of the Elements of Astronomy, on an improved Plan; in three Books. The whole sytematically arranged and scientifically illustrated; with several Cuts and Engravings; and adapted to the Instruction of Youth in Schools and Academies. By James Ryan. 1825. 12mo. pp. 375. New York. James Ryan.

EDUCATION.

A Standard Spelling-Book, or the Scholar's Guide to an accurate Pronunciation of the English Language; accompanied with Reading Lessons. Compiled for the Use of Schools. By James H. Sears. The revised Edition. New Haven. Durrie & Peck.

MATHEMATICS.

Solutions to the Miscellaneous Questions in Gummere's Surveying, adapted to the Edition of that Work. 8vo. Philadelphia. Kimber & Sharpless.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An Address, delivered at the Opening of the Eleventh Exhibition of the American Academy of the Fine Arts, May 10th, 1825. By William Beach Lawrence. Second Edition, with Notes. 8vo. pp. 62. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

A Collection of useful, interesting, and remarkable Events, original and selected, from Ancient and Modern Authorities. By Leonard Deming. 12mo. pp. 324. Middlebury, Vt. J. W. Copeland.

Manual of Parliamentary Practice, compiled and arranged for the Use of the Senate and Assembly of the State of New York. By Aaron Clark, late Clerk of the Assembly. Second Edition. Albany, N. Y.

The Christian Principle in relation to Pauperism; Dedicated to the Legislature of Pennsylvania. 8vo. Philadelphia.

Report of a Committee of the Regents of the University, appointed to visit the College of Physicians and Surgeons in the City of New York; made to the Regents, January 26, 1826. 8vo. pp. 37. Albany. Crosswell, Barnum, and Benthuysen.

Roman Nights, or the Tomb of the Scipios. Translated from the Italian of Alexandro Verri. By a Lady of New York. 2 vols. 12mo. With Plates. New York.

NOVELS.

Changing Scenes, containing a Description of Men and Manners of the present Day, with Humorous Details of the Knickerbockers. By a Lady of New York. 2 vols. 12mo. New York.

The Spirits of Odin, or the Father's Curse; a Novel. 2 vols. 12mo.

THEOLOGY.

A Discourse, delivered at the Opening of the Christian Meeting House in Boston, at the Corner of Summer and Sea streets, December 29, 1825. By Elder Simon Clough. 8vo. Boston. Register Office.

Love to Souls the Mainspring of Ministerial Usefulness; a Sermon, preached at the Ordination of the Rev. Lyman Coleman, as Pastor of the Congregational Church and Society in Belchertown, Mass., October 19, 1825. By Joel Hawes, Pastor of the First Church in Hartford. 8vo. Hartford, Conn.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

The Study of Medicine. By John Mason Good, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. 8vo. 5 vols. Fourth American Edition, reprinted from the last London Edition, greatly improved and enlarged. Boston. Wells & Lilly.

Cornelius Nepos, de Vitâ Excellentium Imperatorum. From the Third Edition of J. H. Bremi. With English Notes. 12mo. pp. 174. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

Starkie on Slander, with Notes and References to American Decisions, by E. D. Ingraham, Esq. 8vo. Philadelphia. P. H. Nicklin.

Horne's Introduction to the Critical Study and Knowledge of the Holy Scriptures. 8vo. 4 vols. Philadelphia. E. Littell.

An Essay on Venereal Diseases, and the Uses and Abuses of Mercury in their Treatment; illustrated by Drawings of the different Forms of Venereal Eruptions. By Richard Carmichael, M. R. I. A. &c. &c. With Practical Notes, &c. By G. Emerson, M. D. 8vo. pp. 360. Philadelphia. J. Dobson & A. Sherman.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the United States Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

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REVIEWS.

An Essay on the Doctrine of Contracts; being an Inquiry how Contracts are affected in Law and Morals by Concealment, Error, or Inadequate Price. By GULIAN C. VERPLANCK. New York. 1825. 8vo. pp. 234.

THE accomplished author of this ingenious and interesting work came to the composition of it under some signal advantages, of which we need not say he has happily availed himself in the execution of his undertaking. The subject is mixed in its nature, requiring extensive knowledge of ethical philosophy, as applicable to legal contracts, and still more an exact understanding of the civil and the common law in their actual condition; and being susceptible of much practical illustration as well as of literary embellishment. For all this Mr Verplanck is eminently qualified, by his talents, situation, studies, and pursuits. While, therefore, his view of the doctrine of contracts as recognised by our law is novel and important in itself, it is peculiarly so, likewise, from the circumstance that his mind, although it appears thoroughly imbued with the great axioms and conversant with the drier details of jurisprudence, has yet broken loose from the intellectual prejudices, with which the conceptions of mere professional thinkers are apt to be trammelled, and has, in our judgment, regarded his subject with the clear and steady eye of unclouded reason. We say not this out of courtesy to the author, nor from a disposition to bestow unmerited praise indiscriminately, which certainly is not our wont. But we deem Mr Verplanck's essay in every sense deserving of the most respectful notice. It unfolds in a perspicuous, manly style of discussion,

and boldly holds up to reprobation certain illiberal maxims of a branch of our law, which it most deeply concerns the purity of a commercial people to have conformable to the eternal principles of justice and truth. Recommending the volume, therefore, to the attentive perusal of the lawyer, the merchant, and the legislator especially, we shall give such brief abstract of its argument and opinions as our limits allow, for the purpose of contributing our share to afford them extended circulation.

As our main object is merely to present a faithful idea of the merits of the work, we shall, in making our abstract of it, pursue the course of reasoning, and adopt without scruple the distinctions, rules, and illustrations of the author; and where we can, we shall employ his clear and expressive language, without any attempts to improve it.

The discussion is introduced by the following case, which actually occurred. It is well known, that towards the close of the last war, the price of the staple products of the Southern States, rice, cotton, and tobacco, had, from obvious causes, sunk to the lowest ebb. At that period, the prospect of immediate peace was extremely doubtful. Intelligence of it reached New Orleans a few weeks after the sanguinary attack on that city, and when, there especially, the event was wholly unexpected. A merchant, who happened to receive the information at an early hour on the morning after its arrival, called upon another merchant, and without communicating the news to him, but at the same time without suggesting any thing calculated to impose upon him, or to induce a belief that peace had not taken place, contracted for the purchase of a large quantity of tobacco at the ordinary market-price of it the preceding day. Immediately afterwards, and altogether in consequence of the peace, the price of tobacco rose more than fifty per cent. Was this a fair and honourable transaction? Did it in point of law constitute a valid sale? Was not the suppression of a material fact equivalent to a legal fraud? Would not a court of equity rescind so unequal a bargain, if the common law afforded no remedy?

The question of law was finally adjudged in the Supreme Court of the United States. They decided, that the vendee was not bound to communicate to the vendor intelligence of extraneous circumstances, which might influence the price of the commodity, and which was exclusively within the knowledge of the vendee. (2 Wheaton, 195.) Such is the law; but are such the dictates of conscience and of sound moral justice? Most men, guided only by their unstudied impressions of right and wrong, would

probably pronounce the transaction to be a gross fraud. So if an ignorant woman should by accident discover a quantity of valuable antique coins, and sell them for old copper to a person who practised no other deception than not to disclose their actual value; or if a farmer having a ticket, and ignorant of the time of drawing lotteries, should sell it for a small advance to a person who knew that it *had* drawn the high prize, and used no art but silence; in each of these cases, our unbiassed feelings, whether correctly or not, would promptly decide, that the purchaser had been guilty of a base and dishonest trick. Yet, if we follow out our impressions with a view to discover the principles which govern them, we meet with no small embarrassment. If one cannot honestly take advantage of his better knowledge of some fact, which regulates the value of a purchase or sale, can he more honestly take advantage of his superior sagacity, his superior skill in a particular trade, or his more extensive commercial intelligence? Can there be no such thing as a perfectly upright contract, without perfect equality of knowledge on each side? Must the sagacious merchant, before he contracts for a commodity with his indolent and ignorant neighbour, communicate to him all his private plans for the use of the commodity, all that insight into the present and future state of domestic and foreign markets, which he has acquired by deep reflection or by wide and extensive correspondence; in short, all that superior intelligence, acquired by prudence, foresight, industry, and activity, which constitutes the most valuable, and perhaps the most costly part of his capital? If he, who for a trifle purchased a diamond or a bank-note from the ignorant owner, ought in good conscience to restore it, what shall we say of him, who, taught by his superior sagacity that a certain lot of land will soon, by the increase of trade and population, be worth millions, purchases it to-day for the low sum of its market-price? Common sense and untaught conscience as readily determine in favour of the latter, as against the former contract. Here, then, is the difficulty.

As we extend our inquiries and trace the analogy in different directions, we shall find numberless cases of the most opposite moral character, from the arts of deliberate knavery to the fairest gains of industry and enterprise, all agreeing in this one prominent feature, that the profits of the transaction arose from the superiority of one party to the other in some material knowledge respecting the subject of the contract. Where, then, shall we draw the line of fair and unfair, of equal and unequal contracts?

The solution of this question is manifestly something more than a matter of pure speculation. If the true principle, which admits of such apparently incongruous applications, can be established, it will have its practical uses as a moral rule, and will furnish the only sound and satisfactory basis for a just and consistent law of contracts. All jurists recognise good faith, in general terms, as the leading principle of every contract; but the greatest discordance is found to exist in the application of the principle. This will appear from a cursory examination of adjudged cases concerning inadequacy of price, and inequality of knowledge, in the various kinds of bargain, which have been the subject of litigation.

The broad principle laid down by the Supreme Court of the United States, that silence with regard to "intelligence of external circumstances, which might influence the price of the commodity, and which was exclusively within the knowledge of the vendee," will not vitiate the contract of sale, we have already stated. This doctrine is now acquiesced in as settled law in this country. It does not appear to have been expressly decided in any English reported case to the same extent; but the entire absence of all contrary authority, the prevailing spirit of the common law, in which the maxim *caveat emptor* is continually recognised, and the nature and language of many equity decisions, are abundant proof, that the law on this point is the same in England as in America. The practice of chancery in this respect is similar in both countries.

That court has granted relief in a large class of contracts, by either directly cancelling or refusing to enforce agreements made according to all the forms of law; and this, not only on the ground of positive fraud, but on that of advantages taken from the situation of the parties, or from the ignorance of one coupled with the confidence necessarily reposed in the other, or on account of the mistake of legal right, and the legal import of the terms of the agreement. But no equity judge has yet gone so far as to rescind a contract, where, there being no false assertion or artifice, and no breach of trust, the parties differed only in their knowledge of the true present value of the thing bought and sold. With regard to inadequacy of price, it is expressly held, that that alone furnishes no ground on which law or equity can rescind an executed contract of sale.

But, although it is clearly settled that chancery will not relieve against a bad bargain really completed and performed, unless actual or constructive fraud can be shown, it is far from being settled, whether, under the same circumstances, the losing

party could be compelled to complete his contract. A numerous and respectable train of authorities have decided, that bare inadequacy of price may be of itself sufficient to authorize chancery to refuse to compel performance of a contract; and an equally numerous and respectable body of authorities declare it insufficient. Again, chancery has decided, that where A, knowing there is a valuable mine on the estate of B, of which he also knows B to be ignorant, contracts for the purchase of the estate for the price, without considering the mine, the court will not interfere, on the ground that the buyer is not bound to communicate this intelligence.

The common law doctrine of warranty is consonant in spirit with these remarkable cases. The seller of personal property is construed, by the mere act of sale, as warranting the title; but no more. However defective the article sold may be, for which a sound price was paid, unless the buyer can prove positive fraud or intentional falsehood in the seller, the harsh maxim of *caveat emptor* is rigorously applied. Nay, if the seller made erroneous representations of the quality of the article, and the purchaser cannot show that they were wilfully false, he has no remedy. Thus, when certain wood, which was bought at a high price, under the description of a valuable dye-wood, proved to be logs of a wholly different species, fit only for fuel, the contract was adjudged to be valid. Again, although the use of any trick to conceal an intrinsic defect of a thing sold vitiates the contract, yet the vendor is not bound to disclose a defect, which the vendee might discover by taking ordinary pains; nor indeed, according to the better opinion, is he answerable for concealing a latent defect, unless he expressly warranted the goodness of the wares, or knew them to be bad, and used art to disguise it, or made wilfully false representations of their value.

But, although in the contract of sale a party is not held to an implied warranty, it is quite otherwise in a contract for the performance of labour. Where a mechanic is employed to build a ship or a house, or make a coat, the law implies a warranty; and if in the event it appears that the work was not done with due diligence, attention, and skill, the artisan is liable to the buyer in damages. Thus, if a merchant contracts for a ship, and the carpenter from negligence, without any designed fraud, executes his work badly, although the merchant might have overlooked the work, and seen that it was faithfully done, yet the carpenter is held answerable for the consequences of his ignorance or carelessness. But if the same builder had con-

structed the same ship with the same defects, on his own account, and afterwards sold her to the same merchant, he would no longer have been liable without an express warranty. Strange as the distinction may seem to those who are not initiated into the quibbles of our law, the tables are now turned on the parties; for the bargain, although unchanged in every thing else, is become a contract of purchase and sale, instead of a contract for the performance of work.

Out of all this it is evident no consistent rules can be extracted. But there is a mass of judicial decision respecting a particular species of contract, which forms a striking contrast to the conflicting and contradictory doctrines, which we have been describing. The law of insurance, the growth of the last century, is unshackled, it is well known, by the illiberal precedents of the old common law, the product of a barbarous land and a feudal age. The law of insurance, founded upon the civil law, and upon those prevailing usages, which are the common law of the commercial world, prescribes to each party, not merely the avoidance of misrepresentation, but the most unreserved frankness and candour.

Besides what in the view of pure ethics might be regarded as a moral fraud, that silence which might be the result of negligence, accident, or inattention, may be as fatal to the claims of the insured. Whatever fact * * could possibly influence the mind of the underwriter in determining whether he would underwrite the policy at all, or at what premium, ought to be explicitly declared; and the want of this so completely puts a bar to the rights of the insured, that the law will afford him no remedy even for a loss wholly unconnected with the facts or circumstances concealed or omitted to be told.

The same openness is exacted of the underwriter; for if he conceals a material fact, as that the vessel insured has arrived, he forfeits his premium. While the law of insurance differs thus remarkably from that governing most other contracts, in relation to the concealment of facts, it varies equally in paying no regard to inadequacy of price. The discrepancy will appear in a clear light from the following case. A merchant, whose ship is abroad, effects insurance upon her return cargo, without saying any thing of her condition. Relying on the representation of his foreign agent, the merchant truly believes that she is sound and stanch, and describing her as such, he sells her to the very person with whom, as president of a company, he contracted for insurance.

The cargo arrives in a damaged condition, solely because the ship is unseaworthy. Now the underwriter is by law exonerated from the loss, because the ship was unseaworthy, although the owner made no representations on the subject; but the purchaser has no remedy, although the property proves defective contrary to the express declaration of the seller. Why this extraordinary contradiction? It is idle to say that underwriters, generally among the most wary and calculating men of the community, need the protection of the law against frauds any more than ordinary purchasers. The law, indeed, tells us, that *the buyer should take care;* that he should always exact an express warranty of the seller for his security; and that if he neglects this precaution, the law will not imply a warranty for his protection. But how are we to reconcile this doctrine, inculcating jealousy and suspicion at every step, with the extreme frankness and ingenuousness, which characterize the contract of insurance?

There is but a single answer to this question, which can be given; and it is a very obvious one. Our law of purchase and sale is the offspring of one system of jurisprudence, a system forced into the purposes of commerce, for which it never was designed, and was wholly unfit; whilst our law of insurance, and certain portions of equity law where the same liberality prevails, are the offsprings of another and a totally different system. This latter system belonged to a refined people, whose peculiar boast was civil wisdom,—*regere populos*,—and whose doctrine of contracts, in all its parts, is theoretically founded upon good faith, equality, fair dealing, and conscience. These principles are laid down as the universal precept, regulating the whole civil law. They apply either to facts intrinsic to the subject of contract; or to facts extrinsic; and are diametrically opposite to our law of sale.

The civil lawyers * * regard it as a necessary incident or consequence of a sale, that the seller, unless he expressly disclaims the responsibility, should be held to warrant against all defects or injuries which are of a nature to render the thing sold unfit for the ordinary purposes to which it is applied in commerce or manufactures, or for the particular object for which it is known to be purchased.

This principle is also recognised in the modern law of the continent of Europe. But in regard so the suppression of *extrinsic* circumstances, the theory of the civilians goes further than modern practice, and further than sound reason or the

exigencies of the commercial world will sanction. They prohibit all concealment of every thing, which the other party to the contract has an interest in knowing. They maintain, that

> Good faith obliges the seller not only to refrain from suppressing the intrinsic faults of what he sells, but universally from concealing any thing concerning it, which might possibly induce the buyer not to buy at all, or not to buy at so high a price.

Such is the strict doctrine of the civil law, which applies of course with equal cogency to the purchaser. And with similar uncompromising adherence to the rule of *equality* in contracts, the civil law considers gross inadequacy of price as amounting to fraud, even where neither actual deceit, nor the constructive deceit of silence can be proved. But here the theory is extended too far. The position of the civil law in regard to extrinsic facts, and to inadequacy of price, does not appear to be retained in the systems derived from that code; nor does it appear to be demanded by an honest or a sound policy. It is not true, that the price of a thing is, in the wide sense, an equivalent for it; or that inadequacy of price necessarily supposes unfairness of dealing. A wealthy peer chooses to give a thousand guineas for an old book, which hardly one man in a million would deem worth a shilling; and yet, grossly excessive as the price may be, there is surely nothing unfair in the contract. Again, if the principles of the civil law are rigidly applied to the suppression of extrinsic circumstances, it seems impossible for two merchants to make a just bargain, unless each lets the other into all his plans of trade and views of the market, which assuredly the most punctilious honour does not require. So that beautiful as the theory of the civil law seems, in respect to good faith in contracts, it does not furnish us with the true maxim of fair dealing which we seek, although it approximates much nearer to this result than the common law.

We must relinquish the pleasure of following Mr Verplanck through the able and satisfactory investigation, by means of which he clearly establishes those genuine maxims of policy and honesty in contracts, which, as we have seen, although discountenanced by the common law, and not well settled by the civil, yet recommend themselves irresistibly to every judgment unfettered by legal difficulties. For the full understanding of these maxims, we refer the reader to the work itself; stating here only a few leading ones, which serve to explain the seemingly contradictory applications of the dictates of mere conscience, to which we

alluded in the early part of our article. These principles, deduced from arguments of sound morals and honourable public policy, are, that any price, whatsoever, agreed upon with a full knowledge of all material facts, is a fair price; that good faith is essential to the validity of a contract, excluding both direct fraud, such as falsehood, arts, trick, used to deceive, and also the fraud of unfair advantage; that is a fraud to take advantage by concealment of knowledge as to any material fact, whether extrinsic or intrinsic, which necessarily and of course enters into all calculations of the market-price of a commodity; but that it is perfectly fair to use superior sagacity, or to apply greater skill and more exact information as to facts which do not of necessity enter into the common estimation of the market-price, and as to which no confidence was reposed in one party by the other; that a contract is not duly executed when the article delivered is found to vary materially in quality from the description or mutual understanding of the parties; and that in every contract of sale or of services, it is implied that the subject of the contract shall be free from all secret vices, which render it unfit for its avowed object, or which, if known to the other party, would materially affect his estimation of its price.

These doctrines, it will be perceived, are in the main accordant with a rational interpretation of the civil law as actually administered; and we rejoice to witness, in the present work, the fruits of a liberal knowledge of that noble code, so long calumniated by common lawyers;—a code, which is beginning to extend its benign influences in the United States, where its study is not impeded by those ungenerous prejudices concerning it, so prevalent in England. We conclude with the following passage, in which certain dissimilar traits of these respective systems of jurisprudence are placed in strong relief.

> Our law addresses the seller thus: Be honest, if you choose to be so, but at all events be cautious. Take care that no fraud can be proved upon you, and then make the best of your bargain. To the buyer, it says: Be vigilant; consider yourself as surrounded by thieves and sharpers; trust no man; look upon every one who buys or sells as a rogue.
>
> Oh! if the honour, the integrity, the religion, that have ever accompanied that noble language which we speak, had not strongly counteracted the influence of the law, how terrible would have been its effects! Nor is it easy to say, at this moment, how great a part of the too lax commercial morality of our cities is to be attributed to this single cause.

On the contrary, the law of reason and conscience, as the civil code has practically adopted it, speaks thus; it says to the seller: Be honest; do unto your neighbour as you would wish him to do unto you; be vigilant for his interests as well as your own. At the same time, it bids the buyer rely with a frank and manly confidence upon the integrity of all with whom he deals, certain that whenever he is mistaken in this, the law will protect his rights; certain, too, that it will do this upon the simple proofs of facts, without requiring of him the disagreeable and difficult task of branding his neighbour with the guilt of fraud.

An Attempt to demonstrate the Practicability of Emancipating the Slaves of the United States of North America, and of removing them from the Country, without impairing the Rights of Private Property, or subjecting the Nation to a Tax. By a New-England Man. New York. 1825. 8vo. pp. 75.

We are glad to see the public becoming daily more sensible of the evils and dangers attending our slave population. To relieve the slave-holding states from the evils they suffer, and the dangers they dread, is an object worthy of the efforts of the ablest men; and every scheme devised for effecting this object, whether practicable or not, must be useful by exciting interest and discussion.

The pamphlet before us is the exposition of a system by which the slaves are to be removed from our soil, without injury to the rights of private property, or expense to the nation. The whole number of slaves in the country the author estimates at 1,761,151; and the annual increase on this number at 52,835. To get rid of them, therefore, more than this last mentioned number must be annually removed. To free the country from them entirely in thirty-five years, he calculates, that 50,318 in addition to the annual increase, making in the whole 103,153, must be removed every year. The *dépôts* selected to receive this amount of blacks, are St Domingo and the part of Spanish America bordering on the Gulf of Mexico. St Domingo is to take from a third to a half, and Spanish America the remainder. In these countries they are to be let to capitalists, and the wages received for their labour are to pay the expense of their purchase and transportation. The expense of the annual purchase of the above mentioned number, our author estimates at $20,285,655, reckoning the average value of each slave at two hundred dollars. The cost of the annual transportation will be $1,237,836

at twelve dollars per head, and the charge for superintending the delivery of the slaves on board the transport ships, and their disembarkation and subsequent condition abroad, with the whole of the necessary agency, is to be $405,713. The owners of the slaves are to be paid their value in stock, or by the sale of stock redeemable in about seven years, in which time, it is computed, that the wages of those removed at each successive transportation will amount to the price of their purchase and passage, together with all contingent expenses.

These are the general outlines of the system, and we must confess, that it appears to us in some parts inexpedient, and in almost all impracticable. Let us consider the *dépôts* selected for the reception of the slaves. And, first, with regard to St Domingo.

Supposing our author's scheme could be carried into effect, would it be advisable to make such an addition as he proposes, to the strength of this island? The situation of the West Indies at present is extremely critical. It is probable, that in some of them, at least, the blacks will before a long time gain the ascendancy. The liveliest apprehension is entertained respecting Cuba, in the immediate neighbourhood of St Domingo. If she should liberate herself, would not the example and resources of these two great islands soon effect the liberation of the remainder; and what would then be the situation of our Southern States? Can it be prudent to increase the strength of so dangerous a neighbour? Would it not hasten the very evils which this system is intended to obviate? Would not the nations of Europe resist, and rightfully resist the execution of a scheme so pregnant with danger to their colonial possessions? Moreover, to look at the subject in a different point of view, it may reasonably be doubted whether the Haytians would agree to the plan. It is true, that they are very willing to receive such of our free blacks as choose to settle among them. But the care of a few, comparatively speaking, well informed free negroes, is very different from that of a million of ignorant slaves. The Haytians have just struggled into liberty and political existence. They are, as yet, very imperfectly informed and civilized. The great object of their government must be the moral and intellectual improvement of the people. And what could be more directly hostile to this end, than the admission of a numerous body of settlers of the character of our slaves?

The other *dépôts*, pointed out by our author, are the Spanish American States bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, to wit,

Colombia and Mexico. And the objections against these are equally strong. It is true, that the population of Colombia is thin, its soil rich, foreign settlers loudly called for by the government and people, and no particular prejudice entertained against the black colour. Still, however, we think the obstacles in the way of carrying our blacks thither are insuperable. Hall, in his view of Colombia, says, that "Idleness is the predominating propensity of all classes; in the rich, it is caused by the want of moral stimulus; in the poor, it is cherished by the facility of subsistence. Throughout the whole of the interior, the comforts and even the decencies of life are unvalued, because unknown. The man who can eat beef and plaintains, and smoke cigars as he swings in his hammock, is possessed of almost every thing his habits qualify him to enjoy, or to which his ambition prompts him to aspire." If such is the character of the people, the government of Colombia will hardly think it advisable to inundate the country with a population still more degraded. They want men of enterprise, industry, and steady habits, such as compose the great body of our western emigrants; and these are qualities in which our slaves are totally deficient. We might ask, also, whether the Colombians, with their present enthusiasm for the freedom of men of all colours, will be ready to receive our blacks, in the character in which it is proposed to send them, to wit, as little better than slaves to the great capitalists, who are to enjoy the benefit of their labours for seven years. Our author observes, that there is little prejudice against the black colour in Spanish America; and Hall, speaking of Colombia, says, "that it is dying away, and that in consequence of enjoying an equality of rights, the people of colour have been among the firmest supporters of the independence of the country." Now, will the government of Colombia consent to have fresh vigour given to all the old prejudices, by the introduction of such a body of men as our slave population?

In regard to Mexico, equal difficulties present themselves. Humboldt says, "The kingdom of New Spain is, of all European colonies in the torrid zone, that in which there are the fewest negroes. We may almost say, that there are no slaves. We may go through the whole city of Mexico without seeing a black countenance. From exact information, procured by those employed in the enumeration of 1793, it appears that in all New Spain there are not six thousand negroes." If she was unwilling to admit them during the time of her colonial subjection, will she be ready to do so at present, when she is forming her character as an independent nation? Her blacks, too, have till very lately

been almost all slaves. Their colour, therefore, cannot be in very good repute in Mexico, nor can such an addition, as our author proposes to send them, be desired. It seems to us, also, not very politic, to scatter the seeds of future hostility along our western frontier, by establishing a nation of blacks in its neighbourhood.

We will now say a few words as to the means suggested for removing the slaves, and disposing of them abroad. The plan proposes, that government should buy them, to the number of 103,153 annually; and should transport them, at a yearly expense of more than twenty millions of dollars, to the places above mentioned, and there let them to capitalists, at such a rate of wages, as will, in the course of seven years, amount to the price of their purchase and transportation; and then they are to be set at liberty. Now, what reason is there to suppose the owners could be induced to part with their slaves? A few might be persuaded to do so, by motives of patriotism or humanity; but the greater part could be induced only by fear, and as this fear is removed to a distance by the opening of a market for the surplus of their slaves in the Western States, we cannot indulge the hope, that any such plan would meet with their concurrence. Moreover, how is this removal to be effected? Is the slave population of a whole district to be purchased and removed at once? If so, how is their place to be supplied? Can it be imagined that there will be immediately a sufficient influx of free white labourers, or that the habits of the planters could be accommodated to so sudden and entire a change? On the other hand, is each planter annually to dispose of a small part of his slaves to government, and supply their place by white labourers? This must also be extremely difficult. For the whites would consider themselves degraded, by working on the same plantation with the great body of black slaves remaining. If we suppose the idea of removal to be agreeable to the slaves, there is another difficulty, which our author himself hints at, namely, the impatience of those whose time of emancipation has not arrived. Might not their impatience to follow their brethren be so great as to lead to an insurrection? These objections, it is true, exist against every system of general emancipation, and we believe will render them nugatory, until public feeling, and the immediate presence of danger, stimulate the planters to greater sacrifices than they are now willing to make, to rid the country of their slaves.

The expense of effecting their removal is next to be considered. Our author estimates the value of the slaves, whom he proposes

to transport annually, at $20,285,655; the cost of their passage at $1,237,836; and the charge for agency in superintending their embarkation, delivery abroad, and subsequent condition at $405,713. This last charge we think much too small, because the important items of expenses incurred in negotiating the sales of the slaves with the planters, of conveying them to the seacoast, of supporting them till the transport ships are ready for their reception, and of contracting for their employment and wages abroad are omitted. The plan supposes that their owners will deliver them on ship-board free of expense; but this there can be no reason to expect. Upon our author's own estimate, however, the annual expense will be nearly twenty-two millions of dollars. In order to defray it, he proposes, as to the largest item, to wit, the purchase money, to create stock to that amount, payable in about seven years, which he conceives might easily be negotiated in the market, or received in payment by the owners of the slaves. It appears at least doubtful, whether stock to this amount could be annually negotiated, and also, whether the planters would receive it in payment, when the means by which it is to be redeemed, and all the above mentioned charges paid, are considered. Our author does not propose, that the national treasury should be bound to redeem it, but relies upon the produce of the slaves' labour abroad. We before stated, that they were to be let to capitalists in the West Indies and Spanish America, and the wages received for their labour are to redeem this stock, at the end of seven years, and to pay all contingent expenses. But where are such capitalists to be found? The states of Spanish America are yet very deficient both in capital and enterprise; and as for our own country, we will venture to say, that a very small portion of the capital requisite for executing such a scheme, could be obtained here. Supposing that a body of speculators could be found in Europe, willing and able to employ these annual shipments of black nations, what security could they give us for the good treatment of them, and the faithful remission of the proceeds of their labour? The Spanish American governments would neither be willing nor able to guaranty their contracts. As for St Domingo, could capitalists be found there to hire our slaves; or would its government allow foreign whites to come in, with such authority over the blacks, whom we are to send there, as this plan proposes? Moreover, the rate of wages which he expects to obtain, seems extravagant, namely, one hundred and twenty dollars per annum for males, and seventy-two dollars per annum for females, between the ages of fourteen and forty-five

years, although he had previously estimated the actual value of this class to their owners in this country, at only three hundred dollars each for the males, and two hundred and fifty each for the females; and had stated, also, that the rate of wages was low in Mexico and South America.

We have already said, that it would be contrary to the interest of the Spanish American governments to allow such a body as our slaves to be mingled with the mass of their subjects. Our author himself supposes the possibility of this, and alleges that they might be placed on the wild lands, and separated by mountains and forests from the rest of the population. But how, we may ask, are you to govern a nation of blacks in the desert, annually recruited by a hundred thousand of their brethren? Of course, they cannot be kept together; the immense mass must be scattered over the wilderness. But what body of white speculators will be willing to accompany and direct their peregrinations? How are they to be supported while they are fitting the desert for human habitation? How are the proceeds of their labour to be made available? How are they to be transported to the seacoast, through forests and over mountains? What must be the sufferings of the blacks, thrown by hundreds of thousands upon uncleared lands, and exposed to all the privations and diseases incident to first settlers without their enterprise, courage, and resources? They are in fact to be driven out into the wilderness, without any purpose of their own, without knowledge of the difficulties they are to meet, or ability to surmount them. They are not even to be free, but to be kept for seven years in servitude, exposed to greater hardships than they underwent in this country, and then to be left to their own resources. The execution of this scheme does not appear to us desirable for the blacks, nor practicable, if it were so. We have not gone into details, in the examination of this pamphlet, because its main grounds appear to us to be insufficient. We perfectly agree with the author, as to the benefits which would result from the removal of the slaves, the increased value of our lands, and the moral and intellectual improvement of our people. But we doubt the possibility of executing immediately any plan of general emancipation.

The labours of the Colonization Society, however, appear to us highly deserving of praise. The blacks, whom they carry from the country, belong to a class far more noxious than the slaves themselves. They are free, without any sense of character to restrain them, or regular means of obtaining an honest

livelihood. Most of the criminal offences committed in the Southern States are chargeable to them, and their influence over the slaves is pernicious and alarming. They corrupt their characters, and inflame them against their masters. If ever a servile war is kindled, it will be by their means. The labours of the Society, therefore, are highly useful. A certain amount of evil is removed, and the virulence of the remaining part diminished. For the facilities afforded to the free blacks for quitting the country, must render them less dissatisfied and less prone to mischief. It is highly necessary, however, that attention should be paid to their education in this country, if we wish to establish useful and permanent settlements in Africa. These settlements, in a few years, will outgrow the control of their agents, and then must be left to take care of themselves, which they cannot do, unless the settlers have been previously educated. If the Society will apply themselves seriously to this object, and augment the size and number of their settlements, as their means increase, they will materially diminish our present evils and dangers, will lay the basis of a large, though gradual emancipation, and advance the cause of African civilization. These noble objects they can accomplish, and in so doing will render essential service to their country, even though they should fail to effect the entire removal of the slave population.

MISCELLANY.

POETIC SIMPLICITY.

It is obvious, that there are material and common mistakes about the nature of poetic simplicity. It is understood in general to mean the unaffected expression of natural feelings. But it is erroneously supposed, that the poet of nature must spend his whole time among living and breathing examples of nature; that he must read men's hearts, and not their books. But who is the thorough classic poet? Certainly one, who has wandered among men of other times, but of the same blood; one, who drinks out of springs, which were opened four thousand years ago. Perhaps, with the majority of men, there is an apparent coarseness and vulgarity, while there is an under current of stirring sympathy and deep emotion. Now this roughness of exterior may be owing in part to causes which are wholly adventitious; and how is the poet able to judge, unless he has carried his views back to the days of greater simplicity—

to the days of ballads and pastorals. Milton loved to read the chorusses of Euripides, before he sketched the scenes between Adam and Eve, and yet those scenes have as pure touches of nature, as if the poet had been actually a spectator, when the seventh morning broke fresh and fair over Eden.

Another erroneous opinion, is, that a true poet is not a philosopher. Yet both poetry and philosophy have their foundation in truth. Instruction is alike their object; one in the stern tones of a lawgiver, the other in an angel's sweeter voice. Is it fitting that a man should be called a poet, unless he can carry the light of discovery into the inner chambers of men's hearts, and make such reports as every one in his secret moments knows to be true? But a poet who can do this, is a philosopher. Paradoxical as it may seem, it does not task the powers so much to create, as faithfully to describe what is created. Byron, in some of his characters, has held up to our view the incarnate visage of a spirit accurst. No person has seen any thing like it; history furnishes no prototypes, or if it does, they are like four or five blasted oaks in Windsor forest. Milton drank a deeper inspiration in describing how Eve felt on leaving Paradise, than in portraying the "council fires" of Pandemonium. Burns says, that an half stanza in one of Addison's simple hymns was music to his boyish ears. It is a glorious characteristic of Wordsworth's poetry, that it is simple. He has been contemned as the philosophic poet, I suppose because he never went on a pilgrimage into some fairy land to get his pockets full of dreams and shadows. He deals with men and women as they exist. His poetry is a mixed current of grief and joy, repentance and obstinacy, instinct and sentiment. There is no bluster about him; he never attempts to take your heart by storm. You look on his pages and wonder, that he has ever been praised. But while the familiar words are meeting your eye, there is an invisible key unlocking your heart. Its holiest apartment is entered; but it is by a confidential friend, come to give information and hold communion, and furnish you a note of admittance to other men's bosoms.

An interesting inquiry now arises, whether we have not materials fresh and unappropriated for a poet of this character in New England. To answer this inquiry properly, we must consider what peculiar circumstances have had an effect upon the habits and feelings of the great body of the people.

One of the earliest impressions, which we receive, is veneration for the pilgrim fathers of New England. Our infant ears are saluted with it in the lullaby song of the nurse; our old kitchens are witnesses to many touching traditions of peril and blood; our daily lessons at the winter schools, our popular Indian histories, all nurture that simplicity of feeling and association, which it is the

province of poetry to paint and measure. I am far from thinking, that the character of the first planters was highly poetical. Persecution had somewhat embittered their minds. They hated the Indians too much. Simple manners gave place to formality, and there was a peculiar kind of witticism and pleasantry even on solemn occasions,—all foreign from the idea of poetry. They had sound piety and unbending resolution. It was the oak with an undecaying heart, but with rugged trunk and bare limb. Notwithstanding, in our associations it is different. There is a true vein of artless poetry. Our love has piously softened the hardihood of their character. We give them more emotion than their many dangers and high duties would permit. We think of the unbroken forest—of the cold wind—of the slippery furrow—of the shriek of death; and our hearts melt.

The American revolution was an unique event. The sound of civil war was here; but the proscription and the black seal were not here. No long cherished enmity had absorbed the "milk of human kindness." Hence that war furnished instances of national enemies and warm private friends—of officers who turned aside the levelled musket—of soldiers in each army, who, after battle, washed their wounds in the same brook. Many simple stories of those times are cherished in the hearts of our people; stories of friendship and love, of united solemn prayer, and of firm reliance in the God of battles. Now these are the very subjects for the poet of nature. They will furnish him with materials, which Homer never thought of. They will sow in broad cast along the fields of his imagination, what can hardly fail to produce rich and abundant harvests.

Not less will the wisdom of our political institutions tend to the same result. It is a proverbial fact, that wherever there is a court, there is hypocrisy and cringing meanness. And the number of subjects, who adopt the manners of a court, is by no means inconsiderable. In France, for instance, it is true, that there are multitudes of simple countrymen, who never hear of a courtier. But Paris copies the manners of the Thuilleries, and the large towns those of Paris; and in these are millions of men and women. To send a poet thither would be to seal up his lips, unless he were a M'Fingal or a Hudibras. Again, in every absolute monarchy, that ever existed, there has been a great deal of mystery and concealment. The edict has not been known till its execution; and *unalterable* has been on every decree. To the breast of the opposer the bayonets of a standing army have been held up. As a direct consequence, there has been little communion between the ruler and the ruled. Natural feelings and affections have been outraged till they were crushed. Reason has lifted up her voice, till force has struck it dumb forever. Now no picture can be more

inappropriate to New England than this. We respect our legislatures, because their interests are ours. We obey the laws, because it is our duty and delight. Through a thousand channels, such a government pours its healthful influence upon the habits and associations of common men. To these new modifications of feeling, a poet could resort for some of his best pictures and happiest illustrations.

Equally to our purpose, likewise, is the general intelligence, which prevails, even if it had been wholly derived from a school education. Pope's rule,

Drink deep or taste not the Pierian spring,

has no application here. We hear much of the innocence, pure nature, and enchanting oratory of the savage, and the conclusion has been drawn, that poetry declines as civilization advances. But no one has examined Indian eloquence, without knowing, that it is confined within a very limited range. The savage has sometimes remote and unexpected combinations of images. He can tell you of the warm gush of gratitude, and of the terrible expiation of revenge. He can apostrophize sensible objects in impetuous language. But his life is spent in hunting, sleep, and unnatural crime. From the very nature of the case, he is an utter stranger to a great variety of feelings known to a civilized community. In a simple native of New England, nothing is more common than for one to return to the gladness of his school-boy days, when he bestowed his little gifts upon a beloved instructer, and received his benediction in return, and at night went home to meet the ardent hand and earnest inquiry of a kind mother. Thanks to our fathers, and especially to the God of our fathers, that the house of instruction has opened a door of welcome to all the children of New England. This education sends out a thousand streams of mutual feeling, and family fellowship, and touching associations, which last all the life long, till the simple school-boys lie down together under the sod of the valley.

There are two circumstances connected with the religion of New England, which have given it a new and interesting character, the general diffusion of knowledge, and the simplicity of our church government. Where gross ignorance is associated with piety, as it undoubtedly often is, religion loses its native goodly aspect. The lowest colloquial language, and the most uncouth comparisons are employed on highly spirtual subjects, and, of course, very unworthy notions are entertained of all the scenes of a future state. I know religion is seen in its attractive charms in lowly life, but in such cases there is some intellectual light. Again, we have no enormous church establishment, with its titled dignitaries, its sinecures, and golden preferments. The minister

of Jesus is the shepherd of his flock by their own solemn and harmonious agreement. He devotes to their good his fresher labours. The holiest feelings of the heart are not violated by the caprice of a bishop, or the favouritism of a prime minister. He is always on the spot with his reproof and consolations. He takes hold of the hand wasted by disease, tells the sufferer of the resurrection and life, and consoles the orphan in the simple strains of Hebrew poetry. Now these things are not without effect. In these little parishes there is a stirring communion of heart with heart. There is love for their minister, and for one another, and a sweet music rises from the altar of the lowliest cottage. Such are some of the materials, which our country, and New England in particular, furnish for the brethren of the harp. We are yet to see, who will give to these things measure and melody.

B. B. E.

ITALIAN LYRIC POETRY.

VARCHI.

Benedetto Varchi was a Tuscan by birth, the son of an advocate of Florence, who gave him the best education that Italy afforded, intending to devote him to the profession of law. Varchi complied with his father's wishes so long as he lived, but on his death abandoned the profession for literature, and became one of the eminent literary men of the times. He was born in 1502, and died in 1565, residing much of the early part of his life abroad, in Venice, Padua, or Bologna, but in the latter part altogether at Florence, under the protection of the Grand Duke, Cosmo de Medici. His writings are very numerous, and in almost every department of letters. The most important of his works is the History of Florence from 1527 to 1538, which is very prolix and diffuse in style, and subject also to the graver charge of being extremely partial to his patrons the Medici. His poetry is characterized by purity and terseness of language, but is wanting in vigour. The following is an exact rendering of his sonnet

ON THE TOMB OF PETRARCA.

Ye consecrated marbles, proud and dear,
Blest, that the noblest Tuscan ye infold,
And in your walls *his* holy ashes hold,
Who, dying, left none greater,—none his peer;
Since I, with pious hand, with soul sincere,
Can send on high no costly perfumed fold
Of frankincense, and o'er the sacred mould,
Where Petrarch lies, no gorgeous altars rear;

Oh! scorn it not, if humbly I impart
My grateful offering to these lovely shades,
Here bending low in singleness of mind.
Lilies and violets sprinkling to the wind,
Thus Damon prays, while the bright hills and glades
Murmur,—The gift is small, but rich the heart.

—

FRACASTORO.

Girolamo Fracastoro, born in 1483, of a noble Veronese family, a physician by profession, and eminent as one of the first naturalists and philosophers of his age, was also distinguished as a poet. His poems were chiefly Latin, but he also wrote a small number of Italian verses, of which the following sonnet may serve as a specimen.

TO A LADY.

Lady, the angelic hosts were all arrayed
In Paradise, around boon Nature's throne,
The silver moon, the sun resplendent shone,
When faultless beauty in thy form was made;
The air was calm, the day without a shade;
Kind Venus gave her sire the magic zone;
And Love amid the Graces rose alone,
To view his future home in thee, fair maid.
Henceforth, thy form's all-perfect symmetry
Was fixed the eternal model here below
Of beauty, by the never-changing fates.
Let others boast a beauteous hand or eye,
A lovely lip, or yet more lovely brow,—
But Heaven all others' charms by thine creates.

C. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

REMORSE.

I AM banished from Home and from Heaven,
Like the rush of a thunderbolt driven;
Ever blacker the night sinks before me,
And louder the storm rages o'er me;
A whirlwind behind me is rushing,
And torrents around me are gushing;
My flight must be onward forever,
And a rest from my wandering be never.

My proud heart is broken and saddened;
My brain, like a scorpion, maddened,
When a circle of flame has fast bound him,
And death is within and around him;
My hopes are all scattered and flying,
And the last pulse that stirred me is dying;
Of memory no time can bereave me,
It may torture, but never will leave me.

O! where the Ambition that hovered,
Till its pinions with glory were covered;
Where the Hopes, ever fonder and lighter,
Like the morning sun, brighter and brighter;
Where the Fancy that coloured and painted,
Till the picture was hallowed and sainted;
And the Love, a devoted adorer,
That bent in his ecstacy o'er her.

O! these were my forfeited Heaven;—
But few were the days they were given:
And now, like a wanderer benighted,
Every blossom and bud torn and blighted,
In the regions of darkness and sorrow,
Forbidden the hope of a morrow,
From all that was dear I must sever,
And rush to my ruin forever.

Now Rage, like a hurricane, wings me,
And the goading of Memory stings me;
If I look, for a moment, behind me,
The arrows of Thought sear and blind me;
The far-echoed music of gladness
Now stirs me to fury and madness,
And the Fame, that once wooed me, now spurns me,
And its brightness now scorches and burns me.

Then welcome the rush and the roaring,
And the storm that is bursting and pouring,
And the darkness that thickens around me,
As if earth in its centre had bound me;
Better onward through chaos be driven,
Than be scared by the frowning of Heaven,
Though a rest, from my wandering be never,
And my flight be for ever and ever.

P.

SONNET.

Is it not true, as One has proudly sung,
"A Poet's love is Immortality?"
Many a time and oft that note has rung
Echoings of high and heavenly harmony.
Sweet, when the weary day is done, to be
Greeted by budding lips and kindled eyes,
Pressed to the one true heart in ecstacy,—
Enchantment, only worthy of the skies.
Repose my heart has sought, and all in vain;
Care, like a demon, hunts me every where;
In vain this faded brow a wreath may wear,—
Vain laurels, colder than the captive's chain:
A look, a word of fondness kindly given,
Love-lit and tender, to that Fame were Heaven.

P.

STANZAS.

Hast thou not seen by evening beam
A pair walk by yon breezy lake?
If bliss like theirs may be a dream,
Tread light lest thou the lovers wake.

Misfortune has no sting for them,
If both have health, inquiries rest;
They seem two roses on one stem,
That ask but sunshine to make blest.

Give me to pass my days like these
In some secluded, peaceful bower,
Where pride and scorn may never freeze,
Nor lordly avarice overpower.

They sing in Eastern song of lands,
Elysiums of happy lovers,
By whom a watchful angel stands
To see that nought unholy hovers.

They said it of the solitudes,
Where Love with happiest heart reposes,
Where, far from all peace-wrecking feuds,
He sleeps upon a couch of roses.

J.

ON AN OAK,

WHICH LATELY DIED OF OLD AGE IN ST JAMES'S PARK.

Pride of the forest, now laid low,
Thy children yet around thee grow,
And weep above thy shattered trunk;
Their younger beauties could not save
Thy glories all from nature's grave,
Where now thy ancient form has sunk.

Full many a time beneath thy boughs
Have been the feast and full carouse,
The mirth and glee of merry bands;
Beneath thy widely spreading shade,
In idle dalliance softly laid,
Here lovers oft have joined their hands.

And here the village lads with song,
And black-eyed maidens once did throng
To trip it in the mazy dance;
With merry jeer and laughing joke
Would foot it round the noble oak,
And now retreat and now advance.

The deer, quick bounding o'er the glade,
Would pant beneath thy cooling shade;
Though hard beset, with toiling worn,
Would stop and listen anxious there;
Then instant start, in breathless fear,
When loud the huntsman wound his horn.

Whole generations passed away,
And left thee still without decay
In all thy rich and verdant prime;
Of each race thou hast known the fame,
Of each king held the carved name,
Unfelt as yet the hand of time.

Yet not alone have come to thee
The joyous sounds of revelry,
  Nor music of the merry dance;
The weary warrior oft has hung
His armour bright thy limbs among,
  Against thy trunk oft leaned his lance.

The fearless bands of outlaws free
Long held thee as their trysting tree,
  And hither brought their dangerous spoils;
Here proved their skill in martial feat,
Caroused upon this grassy seat,
  Or framed some plan for future toils.

On thy majestic head in peace
Rested a thousand years' increase.
  An hour hath laid thy glories low;
The tempest's power thou didst defy,
The lightning flash played harmless by,—
  But hoary Time is Nature's foe.

L.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

El Traductor Español. or, a New and Practical System for Translating the Spanish Language. By MARIANO CUBI Y SOLER. Baltimore. 12mo. pp. 226.

SENOR CUBI has adopted a plan for this work which pleases us, and we think his book will prove a useful auxiliary to learners of the Spanish language; nor do we think it will be the less useful for not being so entirely new in its method as its industrious compiler seems to suppose. We will allow him to state his plan for himself.

As progress, however rapid, is gradual, and the mind of man, however stupendous, improves by degrees, the author has commenced his work by some easy moral lessons. These are followed by a few instructive anecdotes, heroic actions, and sprightly witticisms, all noted for purity and simplicity of style. Now the student is supposed to have acquired some knowledge of the mechanism of translation, and he enters into narrations. After narrations, come descriptions, portraits, and characters, which, being more brilliant in language, are also more difficult to translate. Speeches, comparisons, invocations, are compositions of a higher order than the former, and have therefore been placed next in succession. The work then concludes by some allegories, fictions, and select pieces of poetry, which increase the collection to 124 pages. * * *

Every word contained in the extracts, whether proper or common, primitive or derivative, has been carefully selected, and systematically divided into ten lessons. The first of these contains every word, verbs

excepted, of one syllable, alphabetically arranged. In the second, are words of two syllables, and thus, progressively, until the fifth lesson, which contains the remaining words, of five, six, seven syllables. It has been considered expedient, on account of the long explanation of the mood, tense, person, number, and origin, to divide the verbs from every other word. They are, consequently, placed separately, and divided like the preceding words into verbs of one syllable, verbs of two syllables, &c.

We perceive no essential difference between this plan and that of *Chambaud's Fables Choisies*, an excellent little book for learners of the French language, except in the division of words into classes according to the number of syllables and parts of speech, of the former of which divisions we doubt the utility. In all other respects it is the same, and the advantages of the method are:

1. That the learner has every word set down separately in the vocabulary, not in its primitive form only, but also in every form which it may assume by cases, modes, tenses, &c., and thus one great cause of embarrassment and of frequent applications to the teacher is removed.

2. The vocabulary or dictionary, constructed exclusively for the book to which it is attached, is much more copious, so far as it goes, than general dictionaries can well be, for it embraces proper names of persons, places, heathen deities, &c., which must usually be sought in several different and expensive works.

3. It is more convenient for use, being a part of the same small volume, which contains the lesson, and easily portable in the pocket.

The same method has been applied, though less extensively than by Messrs Chambaud and Cubi, to that little Latin compilation, which we have in our classical schools, under the name of *Viri Romæ*, one of those invaluable presents, which the Emeritus Professor, M. *L'Homond*, has made to the youth of France, and of all nations, with a view, as he beautifully expresses it, "d' épargner à cet âge aimable une partie des larmes que les premières études font couler."

Approving as we do Senor Cubi's plan, and allowing him, as we have done, the merit of industry in the execution, we must say, that in one respect he has in our opinion committed an error in judgment. He gives us a number of extracts from Cervantes; but in so doing he has made considerable alterations in the text. We see no reason for this, which would not be equally good for excluding these extracts altogether. That there are many words in this inimitable writer, which are now obsolete, is true; so there are in Shakspeare; but who would wish to see them plucked out, and the text left mutilated or mended by more modern words. To be sure, a foreigner does not so much mind these omissions or substitutions; but to a native admirer of Cervantes, every one of them would cause a shock, something like that which travellers complain of in jolting over the "corderoy roads" of the South.

But if the object was to omit obsolete words, it is not always adhered to; for many are rejected which are still in use, and for the omission of which we can imagine no reason.

We copy the description of the first sally of Don Quixotte, and will subjoin the entire passage from the works of Cervantes.

Primer Salida de Don Quijote.

Apénas *habia* el rubicundo Apolo tendido por la faz de la ancha espaciosa tierra las doradas hebras de sus hermosos cabellos; y apén los pequeños y pintados pajarillos con sus lenguas *habian* saludado, c dulce harmonía, la venida de la rosada aurora, cuando el famoso caballe Don Quijote de la Mancha, *dejando* las ociosas plumas, *subió* su fam caballo Rocinante, y *comenzó á caminar* por el antiguo y conocido cam de Montiél; y *añadió, diciendo:* "Dichosa edad y siglo dichoso aq en donde *saldrán* á luz las famosas hazañas mias, dignas de *entalla* en bronce, *esculpirse* en mármoles, y *pintarse* en tablas para memoria en lo futuro."

The entire passage is as follows:

La Primera Salida que de su Tierra hizo el ingenioso Don Quixote.

Apénas habia el rubicundo Apolo tendido por la faz de la ancha y espaciosa tierra las doradas hebras de sus hermosos cabellos; y apénas los pequeños paxarillos con sus arpadas lenguas habian saludado con dulce y melíflua armonía la venida de la rosada Aurora, que dexando la blanda cama del zeloso marido, por las puertas y balcones del manchego orizonte á los mortales se mostraba, quando el famoso cabellero Don Quixote de la Mancha, dexando las ociosas plumas, subió sobre su famoso caballo Rocinante y comenzó á caminar por el antiguo y conocido Campo de Montiel (y era la verdad que por él caminaba), y añadió diciendo: Dichosa edad y siglo dichoso aquel adonde saldrán á luz las famosas hazañas mias, dignas de entallarse en bronces, esculpirse en mármoles, y pintarse en tablas, para memoria en lo futuro.

It appears to us, that some of the finest epithets, and the most magnificent, and, if we may so say, epic part of the description contained in this passage have been omitted by Senor Cubi, for what reason we are unable to imagine.

Several extracts are given from Father Feijoo, who is mentioned in the vocabulary, and we believe truly, as "one of the most scientific and erudite men Spain ever produced." He appears to have been a man of the most extensive and profound knowledge. He left numerous writings distinguished as much by their elegance as by the wit and learning which they display,—wit and learning, which, being sometimes employed to unmask hypocrisy and expose imposition, procured the possessor the enmity of those who live by cherishing and taking advantage of the ignorance, weakness, and follies of their fellow men. Father Feijoo's character bears a striking resemblance to that of the celebrated Averroès, who flourished at Cordova in the twelfth century. Cordova was then in the hands of the Moors; and was the wealthy, learned, and polished capital

of the Western Caliphs. Their fates were as much assimilated as their minds; both were the objects of envy and persecution. We hope to see Feijoo's works better known in North America.

In his extracts from Gil Blas, Senor Cubi constantly attributes that work to Padre de la Isla. This may be correct, and we know very well that Spaniards never admit that Le Sage was the author of it. We have heard some of them say, that Le Sage purloined the manuscript from a lawyer in Madrid, and published a translation at Paris as an original work of his own. For our part, we should like to hear the facts and arguments on both, or on all sides of the question, for it appears to have more than two sides; and we think that the question of the authorship of Gil Blas, is one of the most interesting literary problems that now exist.

The Hearts of Steel, an Irish Historical Tale of the Last Century. By the Author of "The Wilderness," "O'Halloran," &c. Philadelphia. 1825. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 326 and 411.

This book has three very great faults; it is very long, very dull, and written in a very bad style. If such books can be republished and sold in such numbers as to yield a profit, it augurs ill for the literary taste of our country. The author states in his preface, that it is the second of a series of Irish Tales; we hope it is the last of its race. The first, he tells us, was called "O'Halloran, or the Insurgent Chief;" of which he boasts that three editions have been published in a year, notwithstanding its romantic title; but he regrets that one of the editions issued from the Minerva Press. We saw "O'Halloran," but we did not read it; its title deterred us. This, however, we have read, and if its predecessor had any thing of a family likeness, even the Minerva Press was in our opinion degraded by "intermeddling" with it. The incidents of this work are disjointed, the characters ill-drawn and incongruous, and the language such as was never before written or spoken. On the whole, we do not now remember that we ever read any book so entirely vapid. The author, after the fashion of the author of Waverley, has prefixed his own verses to the heads of many of the chapters. We quote those over the first chapter, as a specimen of the whole book.

> Think of a people, ancient and renowned,
> Driven from their homes, where long their fathers dwelt;
> To range the world in want and desolation;
> Ah! think what wrath against their haughty spoilers
> Must sting their breasts, and sink into their natures
> So very deep, that son succeeding son
> Will long retain the fierce and vengeful feeling.

We will not afflict our readers with a sample of the prose, only assuring them, that it is just equal to what is intended for poetry.

INTELLIGENCE.

New Work on Political Economy.—In our number for March 1, we published the last of a series of essays on "the Principles of Political Economy, considered more particularly in their application to the Industry and General Interests of the United States." We understand that the author of them has prepared for the press a work, which will soon be published, under the title of "Summary of the Practical Principles of Political Economy; with Observations on Smith's Wealth of Nations and Say's Political Economy. By a Friend of Domestic Industry." The essays which have appeared in the successive numbers of the United States Literary Gazette, will constitute a part of the volume.

New Edition of Tacitus.—Professor Williston of the Military Academy at Middletown, Connecticut, has put to press an edition of Tacitus's History, with English notes, original and selected.

The Last of the Mohicans.—It is said, that a gentleman is engaged in dramatizing this new novel by Mr Cooper.

A New Periodical at Edinburgh.—A yearly periodical, called Janus, has lately been established at Edinburgh. It consists of original articles and translations from the most celebrated foreign authors. The contributors are of the highest rank in the world of letters; and among them are Professor Wilson, J. G. Lockhart, Esq., The Opium Eater, Miss Edgeworth, Hartley Coleridge, Esq.

American Literature.—The "Belfast Northern Whig," in a very flattering encomium upon the means of education and the general diffusion of knowledge in our country, observes; "Two hundred periodicals are issued in the States, in addition to the newspapers, which, from being unfettered by a heavy stamp duty, are in the hands of the poorest of the population." We are aware, that the number of periodicals "published in the States," has been astonishingly increased within a year or two; but we doubt whether it yet amounts to two hundred, though we have not the means at hand for deciding precisely how much this estimate exceeds the truth.

Deaf and Dumb.—From the actual enumeration in Scotland and in this [Pennsylvania] and several other States of the American Union, it appears that there is one, in every two thousand of the whole population, deaf and dumb; and to this ratio all the censuses that have been taken very nearly conform. *Mr Wild's Address.*

National Armories.—By a communication made to the House of Representatives of the United States by the Secretary of War, it appears, that during the year 1825, there has been an expenditure at the the national armory at Springfield, Massachusetts, of $179,983.03; and there have been manufactured there 15,000 muskets, 15,000 screw-drivers, 15,000 wipers, 1,500 ball-screws, 1,500 spring vices, and 437 arm-chests. At Harper's Ferry, Virginia, the expenditure has been $190,790.04; and there have been manufactured 14,000 muskets, 26,926 screw-drivers, 11,000 wipers, 5,000 ball-screws, and 848 arm-chests.

Protestants in France.—A census has lately been taken of the Protestants in France, and it appears that the whole number is 722,329; of whom 509,348 are Calvinists, and 212,981 are Lutherans. The former are ministered to by 269 pastors, and the latter by 219.

History of Painting in Italy.—Two volumes of the History of Painting in Italy from the period of the revival of the Fine Arts to the end of the eighteenth century, translated from the original Italian of the Abbate Luigi Lanzi, by Thomas Roscoe, Esq., will speedily be published in London; and five volumes demi octavo will complete the set. Truly, it strikes us, that Mr Roscoe must be a very industrious and persevering man in his literary pursuits.

Situation of Callao.—Callao is situated on a neck of low land that projects into the sea, and contained before the war about four thousand inhabitants. The fortifications consist of three castles, mounting together one hundred and ninety pieces of heavy ordnance, and command the town, the harbour, and the whole neck of land across which they are situated. They are built of heavy stonework, slanting inwards from the base, and surrounded by deep, wide moats, with heavy drawbridges, in the ancient style. The walls are so strong, that no artillery can penetrate them; their inclination inwards from the base causes the balls which strike them horizontally to glance over; besides they are protected by trenches thrown up on the outside, nearly to the muzzles of the guns; and which also answer as a breast-work for troops outside.

Mexico.—M. Alaman, finding his duties as President of the United Mexican Company interfere too much with his public duties, has been obliged to resign as Minister of Foreign Affairs. He is succeeded by M. Gamacho, of Xalapa, said to be a very able and respectable man. However, the mining concerns have nothing to regret in this change, as it will enable M. Alaman to give his attention more exclusively to them. *London Courier.*

French Voyage of Discovery.—The Paris Academy of Sciences at a late sitting, received a letter from the minister of marine, announcing that the corvette L'Astrolabe, Captain Dumont de Durville, was about to sail on a voyage of discovery, and requesting the Academy to appoint a commission to prepare such instructions as might be judged expedient. The object of this expedition is to explore certain parts of the globe, which are not yet sufficiently well known; and particularly the coasts of New Guinea, and those of New Zealand. A commission, consisting of Messrs Cuvier, Arago, Delaplace, Desfontaines, Dulong, and Aubrone de Rossel, was appointed in consequence.

Mendicity in the Netherlands.—According to a report presented to government in 1814, there were then nearly 700,000 paupers, which, in a population of 5,500,000, is more than twelve hundredths, or one in eight.

Imports of Luçonia.—The balance of imports above the exports of this island in 1817, was one million seven hundred and twenty-one thousand three hundred and thirty-nine dollars.

Siamese Fashions.—They cut their hair close to the head, leaving a short tuft on the forehead, which they comb backward. There is no difference in this respect between the men and the women, both cutting the hair off short. Europeans are not more attentive to render their teeth white, than the Siamese are to make them black. Among them black teeth only are considered beautiful, and it must be allowed, that they succeed perfectly well in this species of ornament. This, together with the coarse red painting of the mouth and lips, which they derive from the constant eating of betal, catechu, and lime together, gives to them a disgusting appearance.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

The Franklin Journal and American Mechanics' Magazine. Monthly. Vol. I. No. 1. Philadelphia. J. Dobson.

The design of this new periodical work we think is a very good one; and if executed with ability, it cannot fail to be acceptable to a large class of readers in every part of the country.

EDUCATION.

First Biennial Report of the Trustees and Instructer of the Monitorial School, Boston. 8vo. pp. 38. Boston. 1826.

The Biblical Reader; or Interesting Extracts from the Sacred Scriptures, with Practical Observations, &c. for the Use of Schools generally, and Sabbath Schools in particular. By Rev. J. L. Blake, A. M. Ornamented with Cuts. 12mo. Boston. 1825. Lincoln & Edmands.

An Epitome of Chymical Philosophy; being an extended Syllabus of the Lectures on that subject delivered at Dartmouth College, and intended as a Text-book for Students. By James Freeman Dana. Concord, N. H. 1825. 8vo. pp. 231.

We have by chance found the title of this book, and when, some six or eight months hence, we may be able to lay our hands upon a copy of it, we may perhaps speak of its merits.

Laws of Cumberland College, in Nashville, Tennessee; enacted by the Board of Trustees, November 5, 1825. Nashville. 8vo. pp. 32.

We have received a copy of the Laws of Cumberland College, from which we learn, that "The Trustees are constituted by Charter the Supreme Legislative and Judicial body of this Institution;" that "they enact all the laws, appoint all the executive officers and instructers, and have the exclusive management and control of the property and funds of the institution;" that "the Faculty of the College" is composed of the President, Professors, Tutors, and all other persons concerned in its immediate government and instruction, except those who may be specially excluded by the Board of Trustees, and is responsible for the faithful instruction and government of the students; that the Faculty is divided into "five schools or departments, viz. 1. Ancient Languages; 2. Modern Languages; 3. Mathematics and Mechanical Philosophy; 4. Chemistry, Experimental Philosophy, and Natural History; 5. Moral, Intellectual, and Political Philosophy, to which also belong, at present, Rhetoric, Belles Lettres, Logic, History, Political Economy, Evidences of Christianity, &c.;" that "the several classes *will be* divided and subdivided, according to the ages, talents, and attainments of the individuals who compose them; and each division or section will be diligently instructed in the way best adapted to their circumstances;" that "those students who shall appear to the Faculty on examination, to be deficient in their studies, shall be dealt with according to the nature and extent of the deficiency; if the deficiency be great, the party in whom it appears shall be put into a lower class; if it be such as can be remedied by diligence, the Faculty may allow the ensuing vacation to make it up, and examine the party at the beginning of the succeeding session;" and that "adequate provision will be made as soon as practicable, for the development of the *science of education*, and for the philosophical training of such students as may be destined to the highly important and honourable profession of teaching." To this last purpose of the Trustees of Cumberland College, we beg the particular attention of those who control the funds and appropriations of the Colleges and higher seminaries of learning in New England.

LAW.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of Appeals of Virginia. Vol. III. By Peyton Randolph, Counsellor at Law. 8vo. Richmond. Peter Cottom.

MEDICINE.

The North American Medical and Physical Journal. No. 1. Vol. I. 826. 8vo. Philadelphia.

Professional Reputation, an Oration delivered before the Philadelphia Medical Society, pursuant to appointment, February 8th, 1826. By John D. Godman, M. D. Philadelphia. B. & T. Kite.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Remarks on the Banks and Currency of the New England States; and the Public Benefits resulting from the System pursued by the Allied Banks in Boston. First published in the Daily Advertiser. 1825. 8vo. pp. 40. Boston.

This very sensible pamphlet contains an elaborate, and, as we think, a conclusive defence of the system "of the associated banks" in Boston. As the influence of that system upon our paper currency has been exceedingly important, and as the policy of the system has been much debated among the mercantile classes, we shall take occasion hereafter to give it more extended notice.

The Essays of Philanthropos on Peace and War, pointing out the Evils resulting from War, &c. 8vo. Boston.

The Art of Epistolary Composition, &c. To which are added, a Collection of Fables, intended as Exercises for Pupils learning the French Language. With some account of the A. L. S. and Military Academy at Middletown, Conn. By Francis Peyre-ferry, Professor of the French Language in the Academy. Middletown, Conn. E. & H. Clark.

The Ninth Annual Report of the American Society for Colonizing the Free People of Colour of the United States. With an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 67. Washington. Way & Gideon.

Notes on the Origin and Necessity of Slavery. 1826. 8vo. pp. 48. Charleston, S. C.

Remarks on the Character and Writings of John Milton. From the Christian Examiner. Vol. III. No. 1. 8vo. pp. 51. Boston.

THEOLOGY.

A Letter to a Gentleman of Baltimore, in reference to the Case of the Rev. Mr Duncan. By Samuel Miller, D. D. 8vo. Price 50 cents.

Defence of the Unitarians against the Wesleyan Journal; 1st Remarks on a late Article upon Unitarianism, which appeared in the Wesleyan Journal, published in this city; 2d. Answer to a new Attack upon the Unitarians, in the Wesleyan Journal; 3d. Reply to a third Article in the Wesleyan Journal of January 21, 1826. 8vo. Charleston, S. C.

Dissertations upon several Fundamental Articles of Christian Theology. By Samuel Austin, D. D. 8vo. pp. 260. Worcester, Mass.

Mutual Love between a Minister and People; a Sermon, delivered at the Ordination of the Rev. Harley Goodwin, as Colleague Pastor of the Church of Christ in New Marlborough, January 4th, 1826. By Cyrus Yale. 8vo. Hartford, Conn.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Report of the Commissioners of the State of Massachusetts, on the Routes of Canals from Boston Harbour to the Connecticut and Hudson Rivers. 8vo. Boston. True & Greene.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co. and HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the United States Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

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